The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 27, 1886.

The Week.

THE Senate last week passed, by a vote of more than two to one, the Blair Pension Bill, which proposes to pension every soldier who served in the army three months, and who is now disabled and dependent upon his own exertions for support, as well as all dependent parents of soldiers who died in the service or from disability contracted therein. This is an extension of the pension system beyond anything ever known in this or any other country, and is but one step short of granting a pension to everybody who served in the Union army, which has already been proposed by demagogues more reckless even than Mr. Blair. The New Hampshire Senator frankly says that he "has no idea" how much money his bill would call for. At one time he suggests $25,000,000 a year; at another, $50,000,000. Judging from all experience in such legislation, the scheme would be likely to involve far more than even the larger of these two amounts, for, incredible as it may seem to a man who thinks nothing of such figures, there are people in the United States who consider the increase of annual taxation by $50,000,000 a matter of consequence.

The roll showed that every Republican recorded was in favor of the raid. We observe with surprise that one-third of the Democrats stood with the Republicans on the side of extravagance. If every Democratic vote had been in the direction of economy, the scheme would not have been defeated, it is true, but the vote would have been so close as 26 yeas to 22 nays, instead of 34 to 14. We trust that the Democrats in the House will administer a needed rebuke to their brethren in the Senate when the project comes up in the lower branch. The Democrats have a good majority in the House, and they can block this raid upon the Treasury. Public duty and party interest combine to dictate this course. It would be an intolerable burden upon the taxpayers to add this great sum to the already large pension account, and the taxpayers will watch to see how their representatives stand upon the question of increasing taxation. The Democratic House could not do a more popular thing than to defeat this extravagant scheme of the Republican Senate.

The President sent in another batch of vetoes of private pension bills on Monday. His messages bring out very forcibly the injustice and recklessness of the policy by which the decisions of the Pension Bureau denying pensions are overruled in Congress. Such messages make Senators and Representatives indignant, because they tell the plain truth about their unjustifiable methods of legislation, but the Congressmen will look in vain to the public for sympathy. The evidence thus afforded that Mr. Cleveland is looking sharply after the course of affairs at the Capitol, will reassure the people, who have become alarmed at the nonchalance with which their representatives are voting away their money. The attention of the country needs to be concentrated upon pension legislation, and a constant fire of small vetoes like these can hardly fail to have that effect.

Republican organs are berating the Democratic House for doing nothing. But it is only fair to say that it is better to do nothing than to do things which ought not to be done. The two great achievements of the Republican Senate to date are the passage of Mr. Blair's "bill to promote mendicancy" by appropriating $77,000,000 to demoralize the educational system of the South, and the passage of Mr. Blair's other bill treating old soldiers as beggars, and scattering $50,000,000 or more of the taxpayers' money among them every year.

The President has given another notable proof of his fidelity to reform by his action in filling the place of Postmaster at Leominster, Mass. The office had been held for eight years by Thomas A. Hills, who, although a Republican in party faith, had never been an "offensive partisan," and had done his duty so acceptably to the public that many Democrats and all the Independents joined with the Republicans in asking his reappointment; the petitioners representing almost all the business interests of the town. A few professional Democratic politicians recommended the appointment of another man, simply and solely on the ground that he was a Democrat, but Mr. Cleveland declined to make a change upon this ground, and renominated the incumbent, to the great satisfaction of nine-tenths of the community. Thus by degrees the principle asserted in the reappointment of Postmaster Pearson in this city gains ground, and it is slowly coming to be recognized that a post-office does not "belong" to the party in control of the Federal administration, but is a business institution to be filled upon business grounds.

The House Committee on Appropriations on Wednesday week reported the Legislative and Executive Appropriation Bill, with two provisos intended to annul the existing Civil-Service Act. One of the clauses making the usual appropriation for the salaries and expenses of the Civil-Service Commission provides, "that this appropriation shall be available only when the rules of the Civil-Service Commission are so framed as that the names of all applicants for official appointment from any one State, found duly qualified on examination and without regard to age, shall be sent to the head of a department or other officer charged with making an appointment." This is virtually a repeal of competitive examination altogether, and since competitive examination is the very essence of the Pendleton Act, it is a repeal of the act; or, to speak exactly, it is a declaration that no salaries or office expenses of the Civil-Service Commission shall be paid until they rescind the principle of the law which they are appointed to carry out. This scurvy amendment to the bill is reported in the teeth of the twenty-first rule of the House, which forbids the reporting of any provision in an appropriation bill changing existing law "except such as, being germane to the subject-matter of the bill, shall retrench expenditures." Now this amendment does change existing law, for the law authorizes the President to prescribe the rules, and the amendment takes the power out of his hands to a certain extent. It does not retrench expenditures, because, if the rules are changed in the manner indicated, the expenditures will remain as before. The other proviso is in the clause making an appropriation for the pay of special pension examiners. It provides that the examiners shall "be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior on the recommendation of the Commissioner of Pensions" instead of being appointed in accordance with the Civil-Service Act and regulations as now required by law. This proviso is if possible more shameless than the other in its violation of the twenty-first rule. Both are cowardly attempts to repeal the Civil-Service Act indirectly. We have little apprehension that either of them will pass; but if they do pass, we shall know which party to hold responsible.

The meeting of the Illinois Republican State Committee last week was held merely to fix a date for the next State Convention, but importance was given to the gathering by a speech made during the session, and still more by the reception of the speech. David T. Littler is the Illinois member of the Republican National Committee, and when he was called upon for a speech, he announced his views upon the great issue of the day in these frank terms:

> "There is only one other question I desire to refer to: that is, the hypocrisy and cowardice of the members of Congress—I mean Democrats as well as Republicans—in their attitude toward this contemptible and fraudulent Civil-Service Reform Law as interpreted by this Administration. I believe it to be the duty of the next Republican State Convention to take bold ground against that infernal un-Republican and un-American measure in its practical operation. [A voice: "That's right." Applause.] I have the courage to say this, and I say it boldly, and there is but one other man who has adhered to his convictions. I refer to an ex-Confederate General, Senator Vance, of North Carolina, who introduced a bill in Congress to repeal the law in its entirety. . . . I don't believe in civil-service reform in any sense, and it is my view that the Republican party ought to take the position that the Civil-Service Reform Law should be repealed, and that all Republicans in office under this Administration should be turned out. [Shouts of "That's right!" "That's business!" and applause.] I don't believe in those sneaking Republicans holding office under this Administration. [Applause.] I will sign the petition of any Democrat who wants to get my signature for the removal of a Republican now holding office, on the ground that he is a Republican and has no right to the loaves and fishes under this Administration. [Applause and a voice, "Amen."]"

Mr. Littler was the last speaker of the meeting, and no formal declaration was made by the Committee, but the enthusiasm which such denunciations of civil-service reform by a member of the National Republican Committee aroused among the members of the Republican State Committee, shows that the professional politicians of that party are as hostile to reform as are Senator Vance and his supporters among the Democrats.

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The publication on Saturday of the fact that Secretary Bayard had been doing his whole duty in the matter of the fishery troubles took the wind out of the Blaine organs' sails in a most exasperating manner. The *Tribune* could not conceal the evidence of its disgust, and printed a very ill-natured article on the subject on Sunday. The Boston *Journal* showed more sense, and accepted the situation in good temper. "The tone of Secretary Bayard's letter to Senator Frye," said the *Journal*, "leaves no room to doubt that he appreciates the seriousness of the question involved in the seizure of American fishing vessels, and intends to act in such a way as to assert and defend American rights." The *Journal* frankly stated what the *Tribune* disingenuously concealed, that the impatience with what had seemed the tardy action of the Administration, was due to the fact that the public gets its information concerning what is in progress on the coast of Nova Scotia through the newspapers and by telegraph, while the State Department, having to base its action upon more formal and authoritative advices, has to await the reports made by consuls after an investigation of the facts, which, of course, consumes time; the more so as the points at which seizures have been made are off the lines of direct communication. "It is impossible for the Secretary," said the *Journal*, "while communications and negotiations are in progress, to divulge their character; but his description of what has taken place as 'reprehensible action' and 'a gross breach of the commercial rights of a citizen of the United States' indicates plainly the Secretary's point of view." This is in refreshing contrast to the *Tribune's* ridiculous talk about "the deliberate action of our Government," and its remark that "no Government will long be tolerated by the American people which so ignores their rights and its duties."

We ought to congratulate ourselves on the seizure of a Canadian fishing-boat and a cargo of mackerel in Portland harbor in retaliation for the seizure of the *David J. Adams* in Canadian waters. As both these craft were sailing without the proper papers, the two seizures make an agreeable tit-for-tat. The Dominion authorities still owe us one ship for the *Ellen M. Doughty*, but it will go hard if we do not find something afloat under the British-American colors to balance the account. The daily bulletin from Portland will doubtless furnish a fitting reprisal in the course of the next few days, or bring us the news that the codfish war has been opened by an engagement between the private armed schooner that sailed from somewhere the other day, and the Dominion cruiser that is known to be waiting for her. Once upon a time our gallant sailors inscribed upon their colors the stirring words: "Not one cent for tribute." Their appropriate motto now would be: "Just one cent for tribute." The duty on salt fish must and shall be preserved.

The anti-polygamy amendment to the Constitution reported by the House Judiciary Committee prohibits "polygamy and polygamous association" throughout the United States. But the second section then forbids the United States or any State "to make or enforce any law allowing polygamy or polygamous association or cohabitation between the sexes." This is all very well, but it goes on to provide that "the United States and every State shall prohibit the same by law within their respective jurisdictions." One cannot help asking who drafted this amendment. The positive prohibition contained in the first section, followed by the direction to Congress to pass a penal statute in execution of it, would seem to do all that can be done by constitutional amendment. The direction to every State to pass a penal statute also would therefore seem as needless as it is novel, and nothing of the kind has ever appeared in the Constitution hitherto. How are the United States to compel a State to pass a law? If the State does not do it, what is the remedy? Can the Supreme Court mandamus the State Legislature? And what would be the use of the State law if one were passed, if the prohibition were already to be found in a constitutional United States statute?

What we hoped would come out of this anti-Mormon movement was a constitutional amendment putting the whole subject of marriage and divorce within the jurisdiction of the United States, and giving the country a uniform marriage law. It is quite safe to say that the difference of the State marriage laws is on the whole as great a cause of scandal and immorality, and does as much damage to the family relation, as the Mormon polygamy. American society is suffering far more to-day from the ease with which monogamists get out of their monogamy, than it suffers, or is ever likely to suffer, from legalized polygamy. What we need is a law which shall surround marriage with exactly the same legal conditions, and follow it with the same legal consequences, in all parts of the Union, so that no American citizen shall ever be less or more married in one part of the country than in another, and no American shall find it easier or more difficult to get a divorce in one part of the country than in another. An amendment providing for this would, of course, make polygamy as unlawful as an amendment specially directed against polygamy. The amendment reported by the Committee contains some very odd things; among others a distinction between "polygamy" and "polygamous association or cohabitation," after defining polygamy as "the marriage relation by contract, or in fact, by one person of either sex, with more than one person of the other sex."

The Pan-Electric people fired their heaviest projectile on Friday, being an affidavit from Z. F. Wilber, who was an Examiner of Interferences in the Patent Office at the time when the original Bell patent was granted. The Committee of Investigation declined to receive Mr. Wilber's affidavit, the time for receiving testimony having passed. Nevertheless the precious document was handed to the newspapers, and to one of them in sufficient season to supply itself with a wood engraving of that part of the Patent Office in which Wilber says he was bribed by Professor Bell in person. Wilber's own account of himself is that he was then in the habit of being bribed by Bell's attorneys through the process of borrowing money from them and not paying it back. Since that time he has been in the habit, he says, of making false affidavits while under the influence of liquor, said affidavits to be used in important lawsuits. In this way it comes about that the present affidavit contradicts some of the former ones relating to the same subject. This one, he says, is positively the last, and is given "for the sake of justice and the easement of his own conscience." He thinks it is quite likely that Professor Bell will deny the bribery, but that his (Wilber's) "mind is now clear and his conscience active." He then introduces the diagram of the rooms and corridors, showing exactly where he stood and where Professor Bell stood when the latter handed him a one-hundred-dollar bill. This is the diagram with which the *Times* illustrated Wilber and itself on Saturday morning. The one-hundred-dollar bill, he says, was given to him after he had shown Professor Gray's caveat to Professor Bell. It is not stated whether a bargain was struck beforehand that Wilber was to show the caveat to Bell for one hundred dollars. The implication is that the money was given in the way of gratuity to a hard-working officer of the Government whose expenses customarily exceeded his income.

No step taken by the Bell Company in this investigation has so fatally discredited the Pan-Electric crowd as this Wilber affidavit. Setting aside the fact that Bell made no use of the information (if he received any) of the nature of Gray's caveat, the whole story, the acknowledged character of the witness, the contradictory nature of his several affidavits touching the same subject, make up a picture which excites both derision and pity—derision for those who rely upon such testimony to establish a truth, and pity for the poor tramp who has made such a sorry exhibition of the remnants of a Union soldier. Mr. Wilber ought to be in an asylum for inebriates or in some other secure refuge, where patent lawyers are not allowed to enter. The protection of public charity should be extended to him, in order that he may not be induced to commit further perjury, and that respectable and well-meaning public journals may not be exposed to the folly of printing his "after-davits."

About one year ago Secretary Manning decided to exercise the discretion vested in him by law to suppress the one and two-dollar greenbacks. The one and two-dollar bank notes had been previously suppressed by law. The object in both cases was to make room for the circulation of silver dollars. About $45,000,000, in addition to the amount now in the hands of the people, could be got rid of by the Treasury if the small greenbacks were called in and retired. The only way to suppress these notes is to cancel those which come into the Treasury in the course of business, and to issue fives and tens in place of them, keeping the whole greenback circulation up to the amount fixed by law. When the intention of the Secretary became known, the banks gradually ceased to return the worn and mutilated small notes to the Treasury for reissue, knowing that they would only get the larger ones in exchange; and persons having payments to make to the Government contrived as far as possible to avoid using small notes for this purpose. The consequence

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has been that the one and two-dollar greenbacks are becoming very much dilapidated, and also very scarce. Silver dollars are coming into more general circulation, and as they come into use their inconvenience renders them unpopular. So the silverites have raised an outcry that Treasurer Jordan is insidiously "striking down silver" by his policy of suppressing small notes. It is very hard to satisfy such people. If silver is not paid out, they say that the Department is violating the law and conspiring with the bondholders. If it is paid out, they say that there is an evil purpose and design to make silver unpopular. We do not see any remedy unless Congress passes a law guaranteeing to silver men exclusively the use of small notes, and requiring the bondholders and the "gold-bugs" to use silver for all transactions under five dollars.

General Logan announced a very important discovery in his Providence speech on Friday, one which bids fair to solve the labor problem if both employers and employees will give their undivided attention to it. What is needed, he says, in order to secure harmony between labor and capital is to pay a fair day's wages for a fair day's work. The simplicity of this remedy must strike everybody with sudden and peculiar force. The customary way of looking at the subject—that of paying an unfair day's wages for a fair day's work, or a fair day's wages for an unfair day's work—is clearly at the bottom of all the disturbances of the time. It has cost the country, according to *Bradstreet's* calculations, $30,000,000 since the beginning of the present year. What Mr. Blaine will reply to all this we cannot imagine, but we are sure that he will have a bad quarter of an hour when he gets a copy of Logan's speech.

The Massachusetts Legislature is suffering from a very bad attack of demagogism. An arbitration bill was recently proposed, and the labor politicians insisted that the choice of the arbitrator to represent the employees in every case where a board is constituted should be restricted to members of labor organizations. Members who believe that men who do not belong to unions have some rights, urged that the range of choice should include the whole body of workingmen, but the demagogues raised the cry that "the labor vote" would be cast against anybody who showed independence enough to support such a proposition, and the bill has actually passed both branches with this discriminating provision in it.

It is a good sign that the countrymen of the Chicago and Milwaukee Anarchists are anxious to repudiate any sympathy with these enemies of society. An anti-Anarchist association of Bohemians held a meeting in this city on Sunday, and after a small number of noisy advocates of the Most policy had been suppressed, they adopted resolutions protesting against the idea that Bohemians as a race are Anarchists, and condemning such acts as those of the Chicago bomb-throwers. One fact bearing upon the attitude of the Poles and Bohemians has not received the attention which it merits. While Poles were prominent among the rioters at Milwaukee, Poles were also prominent in suppressing the disorder; the Kosciusko Guards, who turned out to suppress the mob, being a Polish military organization. The recent disturbances have shown conclusively that it is only a small fraction of even the most ignorant races in this country which believes in anarchy.

The annual exhibition of the Keely motor was given in Philadelphia on Saturday. A new set of terms descriptive of the "power" was introduced, but the tuning-forks and the fiddle-bow were retained to set the "vibratory force" in motion. Ordinary Schuylkill water was used to energize the vibrator. An entirely new machine has been constructed by the inventor, but it is not claimed that any saving of water is effected by it, or that the number of tuning-forks has been essentially reduced. The value of the new machine is that it can be taken apart and put together again in the presence of witnesses. This was done by Keely, to the satisfaction of a goodly number of sightseers, and the exhibition would have been as successful as any of the twelve former ones but for the impertinence of Mr. Hall, the editor of a scientific journal, who asked the privilege of performing the experiment without the use of the tuning-forks. This request was considered by Keely insulting, and he wanted to know if Mr. Hall meant to insinuate that the tuning-forks were a humbug. Mr. Hall replied that that was what he meant. Cries of "Put him out" were raised by the believers, who had come a long distance, they said, to see an exhibition, not to listen to a personal altercation. The insurgent Hall was suppressed, and the exhibition proceeded with much éclat. A "pressure" was obtained ranging from 10,000 to 20,000 pounds to the square inch, according to the pitch of the tuning-forks. At the conclusion Mr. Keely said that he would be prepared to take out his patents in about sixty days, at which time he would have a stationary engine of 200 horse pressure in operation.

The moral effect of the Jaehne conviction and sentence is good, but it is only half of what we hope to see accomplished. The bribe-takers have had warning that their business is a risky one, and that they can be caught and punished. What is most desirable now is to show that bribe-giving is equally risky. If a few of the men who have been engaged in buying legislation can be convicted and sent to the penitentiary, the public conscience will be likely to wake up suddenly to the enormity of that offence. We state it as a fact within the knowledge of everybody familiar with corporations, that a regular item of expenditure with many of them is a large one for influencing legislation. It is looked upon not only as a necessary but a justifiable outlay. Nothing but the startling revelation that every man in any way sanctioning such outlay is liable to imprisonment, will have much effect to stop this business.

Mr. Matthew Arnold begins a letter to the London *Times* on the Irish question by stating that he will soon be on his way to visit his American kinsmen, "who abstained from setting up a Southern Parliament themselves, but are so anxious, it seems, that we set up an Irish one." If this allusion to American affairs is to be taken as referring to the period when secession was beginning, it would be a fitting answer to say that if the North had been separated from the South by sixty miles of salt water, and especially if there had been no irreconcilable antagonism between the institutions of the two sections, it is extremely doubtful if any attempt would have been made to prevent the setting up of a Southern Parliament. Juxtaposition of territory, the conflicting interests of freedom and slavery, and the certainty that any treaty of peace would have been the prelude to war, and that war would be continuous, were the determining causes in the minds of the Northern people. Attachment to the Union would not alone have warranted the outpouring of blood and treasure which actually took place. There was added to this attachment a settled conviction that peace was not possible under the conditions existing. This conviction grew stronger rather than weaker as the war went on, and it has suffered no abatement since. But if there had been a dividing line of blue water even as wide as that which separates England from France, if there had been no fugitive slaves to take into account, if there had been any good reason to believe that peace could be maintained, coercion would not have been attempted. In order to succeed at all, substantial unanimity in the North was required, and such unanimity could not have been had. The Democrats were nearly one-half of the population, and they would not have lent their aid to coercion if the question had been merely that of subduing or not subduing the Southern States. In their minds and in all minds it was a question of subduing or being subdued. It was the culmination of "an irrepressible conflict between opposing and enduring forces," a conflict not to be stopped by paper constitutions or by drawing imaginary lines upon the map. Although the war was not begun to abolish slavery, it was the existence of slavery that made peace impossible.

There is nothing odder or droller in the home-rule discussion than Professor Goldwin Smith's attack on Mr. Gladstone for having shown a "hysterical manner and excessive excitement" during the debates on the question in the House of Commons. Mr. Smith has himself been suffering from hysteria over the Irish question for several years. Four years ago he published an article in *Macmillan's Magazine* gravely recommending that such Irish as were sent to this country with Government funds should be settled among the negroes at the South, where they would do the least mischief; and he declared in the same article that the Irish would probably "destroy Anglo-Saxon civilization" in both continents. A publicist who writes in this way is not an opponent to be argued with. He is a sufferer to be treated with sedatives and change of scene. His notion that Mr. Gladstone is suffering from his own disease is one of the familiar delusions of this class of patients.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 19, to TUESDAY, May 25, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND vetoed four private pension bills on Monday and two on Tuesday, because the reasons assigned for passing them were insufficient.

President Cleveland, in one of his pension-bill vetoes, says: "I am by no means insensible to that influence which leads the judgment toward the allowance of every claim alleged to be founded upon patriotic service in the nation's cause. And yet I neither believe it to be a duty nor a kindness to the worthy citizens for whose benefit our scheme of pensions was provided, to permit the diversion of the nation's bounty to objects not within its scope and purpose."

The Senate on Wednesday passed, 34 to 14, the Pension Bill, so amended as to provide that "no pension paid under any law to any soldier, sailor, or marine hereafter shall be rated at less than $4 a month," and to cover men who served only three months.

In a debate in the Senate on Tuesday, Mr. Ingalls (Rep., Kans.) made a pointed attack on Pension Commissioner Black, alleging that General Black obtained his own pension on false representations.

The House bill providing for closing the business of the Court of *Alabama* Claims was passed by the Senate on Friday without amending. The House passed the bill making a closed season for mackerel from March 1 to June 1 by a vote of 120 to 80. The Senate Committee on Patents directed Mr. Chace to report his bill providing for an international copyright. The House Committee on the Judiciary instructed Chairman Tucker to report favorably an amendment to the Constitution declaring polygamy unlawful.

The Senate on Thursday, without a roll-call, passed the Arthur Kill Bridge Bill. Mr. McPherson could get but five votes for his tunnel amendment. The House, by a vote of 178 nays to 80 yeas, defeated the $800,000 mail subsidy. Only five Democrats voted yea; twenty-two Republicans voted nay.

The Democratic majority of the House Committee on Appropriations has voted to add in the Legislative Appropriation Bill to the item for the salaries and expenses of the Civil-Service Commission the following proviso: "That this appropriation shall be available only when when the rules of the Civil-Service Commission are so framed as that the names of all applicants for official appointment from any one State, found duly qualified on examination, and without regard to age, shall be sent to the head of a department or other officer charged with making an appointment." The item for the salaries of the 150 special pension examiners at $1,400 a year each is accompanied with a proviso that they are "to be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior on the recommendation of the Commissioner of Pensions." They are now appointed in accordance with the Civil-Service Law and Rules.

The Ways and Means Committee on Tuesday morning, by a vote of 10 to 1, decided to report adversely the bill to give effect to the Mexican treaty.

Casey Young threw his "bomb" into the Telephone Committee on Friday, in the shape of an affidavit by Zenas Fisk Wilber, who was an examiner in the Patent Office in 1875, 1876, and 1877, and passed the Bell patent to issue, and who has made heretofore no less than five different affidavits in relation to the telephone controversy since July 29, 1885. He states that in none of these affidavits did he tell the truth or the whole truth, one reason being that he was under the influence of alcohol. His new affidavit says that he accepted a bribe of $100 from Bell to show him Gray's caveat and drawings. Prof. Alexander Graham Bell denies this in the most positive manner.

The Secretary of the Treasury has issued a call for $4,000,000 of the 3 per cent. loan of 1882, due July 1, 1886.

The schooner *Sisters* from Yarmouth, N. S., was seized at Portland, Me., on Monday for failing to have a manifest. The captain has sent a protest to Secretary Manning, in which he says: "Having little knowledge of the regulations of the Treasury Department, and no idea whatever of violating the same, I feel the fine imposed is unjust, and most respectfully ask that the same may be revoked."

The British Minister in Washington is urgently recommending a commission to consider the fishery controversy. Senator Frye, in a letter addressed to the Secretary of State on Thursday, said: "I assume that the State Department is giving this matter such consideration as its importance demands. The urgency of immediate action for the protection and relief of these American citizens cannot be overestimated. I regard the conduct of the Canadian Government as entirely unjustifiable, and without authority of treaty, of law, or of good neighborhood." Secretary Bayard replied: "The late reprehensible action of the Canadian officials in relation to American fishing vessels has occurred in remote localities without facilities for postal communication, and consequently there has been delay, regrettable but unavoidable, in receiving consular reports. But your assumption 'that this Department is giving the matter such consideration as its importance demands' will, I believe, be fully sustained when the proper time arrives for publication of its action. I trust I am properly conscious of my duty as an official charged with the execution of delicate and important public functions, and that the interests and honor of my country and the rights of its citizens will not be found to have suffered at my hands." The feeling in Maine over the seizures is intense.

The second General Assembly of the Knights of Labor of the United States met in Cleveland on Tuesday afternoon, 122 delegates out of 147 entitled to seats being present. The General Master Workman, Mr. Powderly, called the meeting to order, but made no address. The statement is made that a novel proposition will soon be laid before the General Assembly to bring about amicable relations between labor and capital by forming local and district assemblies composed entirely of manufacturers and other employers.

The great strike of coal miners in the Clearfield (Pa.) region ended on Tuesday. The men return to work at the old wages, the mine owners making some concessions.

Judge Barrett, of this city, on Thursday sentenced ex-Alderman Jaehne (convicted of bribery in connection with the Broadway scandal) to nine years and ten months at hard labor in the State Prison. The limit is ten years. Jaehne was taken to Sing Sing on Friday.

The New York Assembly, on Wednesday, passed the bill providing for the election of New York Aldermen on a general ticket, for holding municipal elections in April, and providing that any voter may on one ballot cast one vote for as many Aldermen as there are Aldermen to be chosen at such election, or may on one ballot cast more than one vote for any one or more candidates for the office of Aldermen, providing that the aggregate number of votes cast by any voter for Aldermen shall not exceed the number of Aldermen to be chosen at such election.

The Senate at Albany on Wednesday night, by a vote of 19 to 7, passed the New York Aldermanic and Spring-Election Bill as it passed the Assembly. The bill giving the appointment of Excise Commissioners to President Nooney of the Board of Aldermen was passed by the Senate, and the Census Bill was defeated.

A bill passed the Assembly on Wednesday, authorizing the Governor to appoint a commission of three to investigate the different systems of prison labor, and providing for the employment of convicts on the public account or piece-price system until this commission reports or until January 1, 1887. The Senate also passed the bill and it was approved by the Governor.

Governor Hill sent to the Senate on Wednesday morning the name of Edward A. Durant, jr., to be Railroad Commissioner in place of John O'Donnell. Mr. Durant is a grain merchant of Albany. He is forty years old, and was graduated from Williams College in 1869. The nomination was a surprise, as Mr. Durant is a Republican. The Senate, however, did not confirm the nomination.

On Thursday the Governor sent to the Senate the following nominations: State Prison Commission—Wm. Bookstaver of Dunkirk, George Blair, of New York, and Enos W. Barnes, of Wellesville. Arbitration Commission—Wm. Purcell, of Rochester, Gilbert Robertson, jr., of Troy, and Florence F. Donovan, of Brooklyn. The Senate confirmed them. They were made mostly for political purposes.

Both houses of the Legislature adjourned *sine die* on Thursday noon with the usual ceremonies.

Governor Hill on Tuesday appointed Roswell P. Flower an Electrical Subway Commissioner for this city, in the place of Charles E. Loew, deceased.

The Yale Corporation on Thursday formally accepted the resignation of President Noah Porter, and unanimously elected Professor Timothy Dwight to succeed him. Professor Dwight is fifty-eight years of age, and is a grandson of Professor Timothy Dwight, who was President of Yale from 1795 till his death. He has been a Yale professor since 1858.

It is announced that the Board of Domestic Missions of the Reformed Church of America, whose office is in this city, has suffered a loss of upward of $25,000 through the misuse of trust funds by its Treasurer, John R. Smith.

Arthur Quartley, a well-known marine artist, died in this city on Wednesday, aged 47. He was the son of a London wood-engraver.

Mrs. Alice Pendleton, wife of George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, American Minister to Germany, was killed by a carriage accident in Central Park on Thursday afternoon.

Dr. Dio Lewis, the author of many popular works on hygiene, died at Yonkers on Friday, aged sixty-three.

Samuel Hand, ex-Judge of the Court of Appeals in this State, died at Albany on Friday, aged fifty-two. He was a close political friend of Governor Tilden and President Cleveland, and had been engaged in many important cases before the Court of Appeals.

Professor Joel Dorman Steele, widely known as the author of a series of school-books, died suddenly of heart disease at his home in Elmira on Tuesday. He was born at Lima, N. Y., in 1836, and was educated at Albany and Troy. He served in the late war with distinction.

Gen. Frederick Nash Ogden, who led the White League movement at New Orleans in 1874, which overthrew the Kellogg Government, is dead at the age of fifty.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday night the bill providing for the election by ballot of the Poor-Law Guardians in Ireland passed its second reading by a vote of 207 to 105. The debate was very warm. Mr. John Morley supported the measure on behalf of the Government.

In the House of Commons on Thursday night, after a heated debate, the Arms Act passed its second reading by a vote of 303 to 89. This led the Government whips to claim a majority of 15 for the Home-Rule Bill on its second reading.

In the home-rule debate on Tuesday in the House of Commons, Mr. Trevelyan quoted an alleged remark of Mr. Parnell, to the effect that he would not rest until the last link that

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connected Ireland with England had been broken. Mr. Parnell indignantly said, "This is not the first time that this calumny has been uttered. I demand the date and place of the speech." Mr. Trevelyan replied, "Cincinnati. If Mr. Parnell considers his words derogatory, let him withdraw them and express his regret." Mr. Parnell retorted that Mr. Trevelyan had not given the date and title of the paper from which he quoted. He (Parnell) possessed verbatim reports of his Cincinnati speeches, which showed that he had not used such words. Mr. Trevelyan said that he fully accepted Mr. Parnell's denial, and added that the date was February 23, 1880, and the paper was the *Irish World*.

The Roman Catholic Propaganda has succeeded in inducing the bishops to exert their influence upon Mr. Parnell's followers, with the object of securing the latter's consent to the retention of a full Irish representation at London. Cardinal Manning initiated the movement. It is said that he believed that the removal of Irish members from Westminster would be injurious to the cause of Roman Catholic denominational education in Great Britain

Lord Salisbury addressed a great audience, under the auspices of the Primrose League, in London on Wednesday. He advised the maintenance of law and order in Ireland. He reiterated his advice to the Irish to emigrate from Ireland if they could not prosper and be contented under British rule, and urged the Conservatives to support the Liberal Unionist candidates in the coming election where Conservatives could not certainly be chosen.

Matthew Arnold has written a letter to the London *Times* on home rule, in which he says: "A separate Parliament for Ireland is Gladstone's irreducible minimum. Ireland is a nation, says Mr. Parnell menacingly and Mr. Stansfeld gushingly. A nation should have its national Parliament. Ireland has been a nation and a most unhappy one. Wales and Scotland also have been nations. Politically none of them are nations now. Britain could not have risen to her present greatness if she had given them separate Parliaments. You begin to make them nations politically again, but you begin also to undo what made the country. The awakening mind of the country demands not that we give a separate Parliament to Ireland, but that we seriously set ourselves to the task of giving her separate laws and institutions. Lord Salisbury's bad and arbitrary temper as a home politician is as great a misfortune to the country as Lord Randolph Churchill's intriguing. The establishment of a separate Parliament would be a dangerous and unnecessary plunge. Lord Salisbury talks only of coercion. Let us refuse a separate Parliament with firmness, but with equal firmness let us insist upon a condition which alone justifies this refusal. Lord Hartington has good temper. He is no intriguer. Mr. Goschen has made local government a special study. I hope they may be trusted to make our refusal firmly and our engagements emphatically. The passionate supporters of Mr. Gladstone are political dissenters and Radical workmen of the great towns."

Lord Randolph Churchill, in a long letter to Mr. Gladstone, accuses him of completely misstating his (Churchill's) recent remarks in regard to Ulster Loyalists and rebellion. Mr. Gladstone replies: "I greatly regret if I misrepresented your statements. My words rested mainly on your speech in Ulster and on the closing paragraph of your letter to Mr. Young of the 7th instant. This paragraph was as follows: 'If Parliament, for the sake of purchasing a short, illusory quietude, hand the Irish Loyalists over to their hereditary foes, Ulster will fight and will be victorious, because she will command the sympathy and support of an enormous section of the British community and the approval of free, civilized nations.' Let us consider this paragraph substituted for the words which I attributed to you in quoting from recollection. To this I am constrained to apply exactly the same words that I expressed in Parliament."

The Gladstone Committee is making a final effort to conciliate the Radical dissenters. The Committee has made overtures to Mr. Chamberlain, promising that if he abstains from voting against the Home-Rule Bill the measure will be dropped after the second reading, and the Government will then support a resolution affirming the supremacy of the Imperial Parliament, and promising adequate protection to the Irish minority. Mr. Chamberlain's acceptance of the offer depends upon Mr. Gladstone's giving guarantees that this course will be followed.

From the best information obtainable it is believed that the British Cabinet decides not to abandon clause 24 of the Home-Rule Bill, which provides for no Irish representation at Westminster. Mr. Gladstone, however, has declared his willingness to introduce further modifications, which he will explain at a general meeting of the Liberal party. In the call for this meeting, to be held on May 27, Mr. Gladstone says: "It is proposed to hold a meeting at the Foreign Office on Thursday, 27th, at noon, of all the members of the Liberal party who are desirous, while retaining full freedom in all particulars in the Irish Government Bill, to vote in favor of the establishment of a legislative body in Dublin for the management of affairs specifically and exclusively Irish." The special significance of this is its decision as to who shall and shall not be considered members of the Liberal party in the future. It is a decree excommunicating the Whigs, and making home rule the Liberal shibboleth. It is an official recognition of the break-up in the Liberal party.

An important session of the British Cabinet was held on Tuesday. It lasted more than an hour, and at its close Mr. Gladstone started for Windsor to see the Queen. Wild rumors were afloat—one that he would advise an immediate dissolution; and another that he would tender his resignation.

M. Stephanopulos was on Thursday elected President of the Greek Chamber of Deputies. He was the nominee of M. Tricoupis, and was elected by a majority of 60 over the candidate supported by M. Delyannis.

M. Tricoupis on Friday formed a new Greek Ministry. He assumed provisionally the offices of Minister of War and Minister of Finance. The other Ministers are: M. Lombardos, Minister of the Interior; M. Voulpiotos, Minister of Justice; M. Manetas, Minister of Public Instruction; M. Theokotis, Minister of Marine. The Ministry is for peace.

A number of skirmishes took place on the Greek frontier on Thursday night and Friday morning. The Turks were the aggressors. European markets were unfavorably affected.

The Greeks claim that during the frontier engagements on Friday they captured two positions from the Turks; 20,000 cartridges, and three prisoners. The commander of the Turkish troops explained that the firing by his men was due to a mistake, and he gave assurances that Turkey's intentions were pacific. There was an entire cessation of firing everywhere along the frontier on Saturday. Mutual explanations were made.

Severe fighting took place on the Greek frontier on Sunday morning. The forces engaged covered a distance of fifteen miles. The heaviest fighting was at Tirnovo, and the casualties were heavy on both sides. A truce was effected at noon, and efforts are making to arrange an armistice.

There was more fighting on Monday, in which the Greeks were successful. On the same day a royal decree was issued sending 50,000 Greek troops to their homes. No further trouble is anticipated. The immediate cause of the recent hostilities was the fact that the Greek troops, who had served all winter on the frontier and borne all the hardships, knew that as soon as Tricoupis came back to power they would be disbanded, and were eager to show what they could do. The conflict was practically provoked. The Greek General Loris has been mortally wounded.

United States Minister S. S. Cox had a three hours' interview with the Sultan on Wednesday. He presented to the latter gifts sent by President Cleveland, consisting of 1,000 views of scenery in different parts of the United States, portraits of celebrated and typical Indians, copies of the last census reports, etc. The Sultan was well pleased with the presents, and requested Mr. Cox to thank President Cleveland for the "unique and valuable gifts." The Sultan asked Mr. Cox to coöperate in the work of taking a Turkish census.

M. Rousseau, the delegate appointed by the French Government to inspect the work on the Panama Canal, has presented a report in which he denies the correctness of the canal company's statements respecting its facilities for construction, the time when the canal will be completed, and the amount of money still required to accomplish the work. The Minister of Public Works will inform M. de Lesseps and his fellow-directors that they must reply to M. Rousseau's report, as the Government cannot authorize the proposed issue of lottery bonds until the position of the company is made clear.

M. de Lesseps assumes to make light of the report. He says that if the Government refuses him permission to issue lottery bonds for the purpose of raising sufficient money to complete the canal, he will get funds by other means and elsewhere than in France.

It is considered certain that the French Government will prohibit the Comte de Paris, who is now in Lisbon, from reëntering France.

The French Cabinet on Tuesday by a vote of 6 to 5 adopted the principle of the expulsion of the Orleans Princes.

The German Reichstag on Tuesday referred the Spirit Bill to a committee, and adjourned *sine die*.

Leopold von Ranke, the aged and renowned German historian, died on Sunday in Berlin. He was born at Wiehe, in Thuringia, on December 21, 1795, and was therefore in his ninety-first year. At the age of twenty-nine he published his first works, 'The History of Roman and German Nations from 1494 to 1535' and 'Criticisms upon Modern Historians.' These works brought him a professorship of history at Berlin in 1825, which he retained until his death. A few years later he was sent by the Prussian Government to examine the historical material in Venice, Vienna, Florence, and Rome, in which work he spent four years. Libraries, public archives, and monasteries were ransacked, and much valuable historical material was brought to light. From this he produced a number of notable historical works. The work which first gave him European reputation was entitled 'The Popes of Rome,' which was really a continuation of 'The Princes and Peoples of Southern Europe.' This work appeared in 1834. The review of it by Lord Macaulay in the Edinburgh *Review* is one of his masterpieces, and it made Ranke's name familiar to English and American readers. His most complete effort, however, is his 'German History in the Time of the Reformation.' The closing work of his life, a history of the world, entitled 'Weltgeschichte,' was projected after he was eighty years of age. It was to be in nine volumes. Six of these have been completed, and it is believed that he has left sufficient notes and documents to permit at least one more to be prepared by his literary executor.

The official report of the Minister of Militia was presented to the Canadian Parliament on Friday morning. It shows that the total cost of the half-breed rebellion was $4,700,000, and the casualties 26 men killed and 206 wounded.

Maximo Santos has been appointed President of Uraguay, President Vidal having resigned.

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DESPOTISM AND SECRECY.

THE two leading strikes of the late labor crisis were those of the Southwestern Railroads and of the Third Avenue Road in this city. One was started and managed by Martin Irons and the other by Joseph O'Donnell. Irons was Chairman of one Executive Committee and O'Donnell of another. In both cases the great body of the strikers had no grievances of their own to complain of. They struck because they were ordered to strike by the man representing the Executive Committee, and they held out because they got no orders from him to go back to work. There have been other similar cases on a smaller scale. In the Paterson silk factory 1,200 persons struck, without knowing why, on receiving a signal made with his fingers by a cigarmaker from Albany, who was also chairman of some committee, and sought to make the owner of the factory conduct the business of his dye-house to suit him (the cigarmaker). Being coldly received in the dye-house, he lost his temper, and snapped his fingers as he passed through the shops, with the above-mentioned result.

In all these cases the strikes failed utterly, but not without great loss both to employer and employed. The employer lost the profits on his business, the interest on his fixed capital, and probably some of his permanent custom; while the strikers lost their wages, and thousands of men and women all over the country lost the amount of a special tax levied on them, or assumed by them to support the strikers while loafing or rioting. A fortnight ago the Third Avenue strike ended in failure, and when it ended, O'Donnell, the man who started it and kept it going, had to resign and get out of the way of his constituents. For some days there was talk of mobbing him, and after having at one time occupied a position so eminent that he peremptorily directed the Inspector of Police not to suppress a riot which he was himself heading —and this with the approval of some of the newspapers—he has utterly disappeared from view, amid the curses of his dupes. More recently the Southwestern strike ended in failure also. Irons is in hiding, or has made his escape, leaving a mob of his former followers and many angry creditors vainly searching for him with hostile intent. In like manner the silk workers at Paterson went back to work ashamed and sorry, and the cigarmaker who snapped his fingers has been expelled from his assembly, or whatever the body is to which he belongs, and deposed from his high office.

Now, what is the moral of all this for working people? Is it not the old moral, which political history has been teaching for 4,000 years, that no man or small knot of men is fit to be intrusted with the exercise of arbitrary power over other men's lives and fortunes? Is it not astounding that there should be found so many white citizens of the United States ready to act as if they had no knowledge of the experience of their race with absolute rulers and secret cabals and committees; of the loss, and suffering, and sorrow which it has undergone at their hands, of the vast expenditure of life and treasure which it has taken to get rid of them and establish government by popular consent and public discussion? Louis XIV. and Napoleon I. and Napoleon III. were really nothing but Grand Master Workmen, with a lot of Inside and Outside Esquires at their beck and call, who had only to crack their fingers in order to tear people away from their occupations without telling them why, and levy on their property without rendering them an account. Charles I., too, really wanted to be a Walking Delegate, and go about the country and collect money, without letting people know what he wanted it for, but the English would not give him "assessments," or permit him to snap his fingers in their workshops; and on his persisting in the practice they cut his head off.

The strikes which Louis XIV. ordered were on a tremendous scale. He had constantly 300,000 or 400,000 men striking in one direction or another, without ever telling them what the cause was. He himself escaped the fury of the strikers by death, but his successor in the fifth generation perished for his ancestor's sins on the scaffold. Napoleon I. was a still greater organizer of strikes. He kept all France on a strike against the rest of Europe for twenty years. He used to order out a couple of hundred thousand men at a time, and when the wretched strikers asked what it was all about, he used to say, like Martin Irons, that it was to "show his power," and when they begged to be allowed to go back to their factories and fields, he used to say, like Master Workman Powderly, that though the strike might have been unjustifiable in the beginning, it had to go on for the credit of the Order. But the day came at last when, as in Missouri, the patience of the strikers was worn out, and they deserted him, and then, like Irons, he had to run, with a mob after him, and left the world wondering what he had done with all the money. His nephew, Napoleon III., had a somewhat similar experience. He headed and managed strikes in France, and collected assessments, and kept "pickets" out, and stopped trains, and ran opposition stages for twenty years, but at last he organized a bigger strike than he could manage, and he too had to run with the mob at his heels, followed by his Venerable Sages, and his Esquires, and his Local Assembly.

In fact, how any workingman who can read, and who has any habit of reflection, can bring himself, in the year 1886, in the United States of America, to join any organization in which his life and property can be controlled by arbitrary or secretly prepared orders, it is difficult to understand. For to be, not simply an American, but a modern freeman, it is before all things necessary that a man should make his own contracts; should pay no money, except debts, to anybody who is not willing to render him an account; should submit to no laws or "orders" which he has not been consulted about, or has not had a hand, personally or through his representatives, in making after open discussion. These things are among the essentials of freedom. A man who has only some of them is partially free. A man who has none of them is a slave.

HOW THE KNIGHTS CONDUCT STRIKES.

EXTRAORDINARY revelations as to the manner in which the Knights of Labor conduct strikes, were made by many members of the order during the late Congressional investigation. The sessions of the Committee were attended by Charles H. Litchman, first General Secretary of the order, and at present a member of the General Executive Board for the whole country, who was sent to St. Louis by Mr. Powderly as his authorized representative. What Mr. Litchman says as to the morals of striking, and of preventing by force other men from taking the places of strikers, is therefore of the highest significance. Here it is:

"Mr. Parker—What do you call a scab?

"Mr. Litchman—By a scab, the trades unionist means what the lawyer means by a shyster and the doctor by a quack.

"Q. Do you not acknowledge the right of any man to work and earn wages and support his family? A. When you put the question abstractly, in that way, I must answer it, 'Yes.' *But I do not acknowledge the right of any man, at the time a great conflict is raging between labor and capital, to step in between and scab.*

"Q. You said a while ago that when a strike was declared, everything in human power should be done to make it effective and successful. What did you mean by everything in human power? A. *I would rather not answer that question. The case is not here, and I don't care to make myself plainer.*"

Irons was asked for his views on the same point with this result:

"Q. Now, do you regard injuring property as lawlessness? A. Yes.

"Q. And killing engines? A. Well, sort of, I suppose.

"Q. Do you regard uncoupling cars and breaking up trains as violence? A. Well, yes."

On previous occasions Irons had been more candid in expressing his endorsement of violence. One witness produced short-hand notes of a speech made by Irons at a Knights of Labor meeting in East St. Louis, while the trouble there was at its height, in which he said:

"Talk to the scabs; go to their houses and talk to their wives, and make them quit. Do everything you can to make them come out, *and if they won't, give them some pills and — them out.* To hell with the Chinese! To hell with the scabs! We won in the Chinese fight, and we will win this."

At the same meeting, said this witness,

"another Knight of Labor advised the men to be quiet while the militia were there, but as soon as they were gone"—here the speaker winked significantly.

"Mr. Stewart—He didn't reduce it to words, but he looked it?

"Witness—Yes."

The way in which the teachings of men like Litchman and Irons were carried into practice was perfectly illustrated at De Soto, Mo., and is best told by some of the witnesses from that place. Joseph Cramer, formerly employed by the Missouri-Pacific at De Soto, was thus examined:

"Mr. Stewart—Are you a Knight of Labor?

"Witness—No; I used to be.

"Mr. Stewart—How did your connection with the order terminate?

"Witness—Well, on March 14, I was ordered to assist in stopping trains. I didn't go. On the 17th two members of the assembly asked me again, but I said I shouldn't have anything at all to do with such business. On the 18th I received the following written notice from the lodge:

"'You are hereby notified to come to the hall and report for duty to the Master Workman.'

At first I didn't go, but when they sent again I went. When I appeared, the Master Workman told me to go to the coal chute. I asked what that was for. He said, 'To stop trains.' I said I was not going to do any such thing as that. He said, 'Very well, you needn't do anything, but you can go and swell the crowd.' I replied, I didn't propose to violate any laws or make myself a criminal in any way. He told me I was a coward. I replied, 'Well, I may be, but I'm not afraid of you or any one else; all the same, I'm not going to damage the company's property.'

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"Mr. Burnes—Where did this conversation take place?

"Witness—In the Knights of Labor hall at De Soto.

"Q. With the Master Workman? A. Yes.

"Q. Whose signature was attached to the notice? A. Master Workman McLaughlin's.

"Q. Who brought the notice? A. I don't know, but it was one of the officers who came the second time.

"Q. Here is a list of names of the men who broke open the round-house. Do you know of your own knowledge whether they are Knights of Labor or not? A. Most of them I have met at the lodge, and one of them abused me terribly.

"Q. Who was that? A. Rogerson. He said: 'Do you suppose the Knights of Labor will ever allow you to work in their shops again when they have got through this affair?' I said: 'That is a matter for consideration later on.' He said they were going to win the fight, and I should never be allowed to work with them afterward.

"Mr. Burnes—Did you withdraw from the Knights of Labor?

"Witness—I didn't withdraw; I was expelled.

"Q. Why? A. For refusing to stop trains and damage the railroad property.

"Q. When were you expelled? A. The same night I refused to go on duty. They also went so far as to say that they would give me twenty-four hours to leave the town.

"Q. Were you present when you were expelled? A. No, but officers of the assembly told me the next morning.

"Q. What were you told? A. That I was expelled for gross violation of the laws of the order.

"Q. What was the violation? A. Refusing to obey the officer's demand to stop trains and destroy property.

"Governor Curtin—Do you understand that there is a law of the Knights of Labor to compel a man to disobey the laws of the United States?

"Witness—No; and I told the Master Workman so. He said he didn't know anything about that, but I had got to do it."

Henry P. Becker, a merchant of De Soto, testified that he had witnessed several acts of violence by Knights of Labor. He himself formerly belonged to the order, and left it in this way:

"Mr. Burnes—Why did you leave the order?

"Witness—I was expelled because I was told to go on picket. I said I had done all the picketing I meant to do. The Master Workman pressed me, and I said: 'I'll be d——d if I go on picket.' I walked out of the room, and was expelled. After that I received notice that it would be well if my son did not make himself so busy. I went round to my son at once. He is employed in the office at the depot, and I said: 'You do your duty, and if any one interferes with you shoot him. You do this, and I'll stand by you.'"

John French, a blacksmith formerly employed at De Soto, testified that he had belonged to the Knights of Labor up to the 8th of March, when he retired because he could not countenance acts of violence and intimidation. Further evidence to the same effect was ready, but the Committee declined to hear more, one of the members saying: "I hardly see the use of continuing this line of examination. There is no doubt whatever that the Knights of Labor were implicated in these disturbances, and that the Master Workman gave notice that no trains should go out."

Finally, as to the character of the tyranny exercised over the Knights of Labor by the organization, two bits of testimony may be quoted. One is from the examination of Joseph Cramer, who was expelled from the De Soto Assembly for refusing to obey the Master Workman's order to stop trains and damage the railroad property:

"Mr. Stewart—Is it a principle in the order that members shall stop trains and damage property?

"Witness—I don't know about that, *but a man has to obey orders.*"

The other is from the examination of John Doyle, formerly a tinner in the Missouri-Pacific shops at St. Louis:

"Mr. Burnes—Why did you go out?

"Witness—Because I was ordered to.

"Mr. Burnes—Would you have gone out except for the order?

"Witness—No; I didn't suppose it would do me any good, *but when a man belongs to an order, he has to obey it.*"

This testimony of members of the order presents a complete picture of the Knights of Labor organization as it exists to-day. It is an organization whose authorized representative regards "labor" as meaning only laborers who belong to the organization, and who does "not acknowledge the right of any man, at the time a great conflict is raging between labor and capital" (meaning between Knights of Labor and their former employer), "to step in between and scab" (meaning for an unemployed man not a Knight of Labor to take a vacant place formerly filled by a Knight of Labor). It is an organization in which such an utterly worthless fellow as Martin Irons becomes absolute dictator over 5,000 men, so that they are bound by oath to obey any order he may give. It is an organization in which a Martin Irons possesses and exercises the power to order a strike which affects not only these 5,000 men, but all the industries of half-a-dozen States, because he fancies that a railroad official in one of these States meant "a slight on the order" when he discharged an inefficient workman. It is an organization whose local assemblies have ordered members to stop trains and damage railroad property without being called to account by the governing body, and whose authorized representative justifies such action by saying, when asked to define what he means by doing "everything in human power" to make a strike effective, "I would rather not answer that question." It is an organization which binds the member by oath to obey implicitly any command of anybody who chances to be his superior officer, no matter if that superior officer orders him, suddenly and without reason, to stop work, give up a place with which he is entirely satisfied, and leave his family without means of support, or even to break the law and by force prevent another man from working in his place—any act of disobedience bringing down upon the offender the vengeance of the organization: "*when a man belongs to an order, he has to obey it.*"

ONE OF MR. GLADSTONE'S DIFFICULTIES.

A GREAT deal of the trouble which Mr. Gladstone is experiencing with his Irish measures is due to the fact that to most Englishmen the whole Irish question is a complete novelty, and the island a terra incognita. It would probably be found, if the matter could be investigated, that only a very small number of Englishmen, prominent in public life, have ever been in Ireland, or, if they have ever visited that country, have stayed there more than a few days, or have seen more than one small class of the community. The same reasons, too, which keep Englishmen from going to Ireland have always kept them from studying Irish questions, or indeed giving them any attention except under the pressure of some such necessity as the holding of an Irish office. And then the persistent grumbling of the Irish ever since the Union has produced in most Englishmen the impression which grumbling always produces on people who know little and care nothing about the grumblers—that is, the impression that they are born grumblers and that nothing would satisfy them. A "man with a grievance" is always, even to his friends, a serious bore. After they have heard his story once or twice they cease to care whether it is true or not, and are inclined to believe that it is not true.

Moreover, the Irish, with all their oratorical gifts, are on the whole ill fitted to make a serious impression on English audiences, even if they get a hearing. Their rhetoric is too fervid, just as that of Frenchmen or Italians is, for the cold English temperament. Their exaggerations and flights of fancy excite disgust and distrust in the English mind. So that even if Englishmen had been disposed to listen to them, they would probably not have succeeded in making much impression. To these difficulties we must add what we may call the natural imperviousness of the English mind. As Matthew Arnold says, Englishmen "have become, in a certain sense, of all people the most inaccessible to ideas, and the most impatient of them; inaccessible to them because of their want of familiarity with them, and impatient of them because they have got on so well without them that they despise those who, not having got on so well as themselves, still make a fuss for what they themselves have done so well without."

Now, Mr. Gladstone's announcement fifteen years ago that Irish grievances were real, and could be redressed, and must be redressed, was really a disturbance of English life by the introduction of a new and essentially repulsive idea. His proposal to disestablish the Irish Church and to interfere between landlord and tenant was a new idea, which the English mind apprehended with difficulty and reluctance, and which first gave him the reputation in English clubs and drawing-rooms of being a dangerous man, who concocted strange and startling theories of English duty. His home-rule scheme is, of course, still more alarming and incomprehensible than anything which has gone before. Accordingly when it first appeared it absolutely shocked the middle and upper classes in England. They looked on it as a wild and grotesque concoction of Gladstone's brain, and, besides this, absolutely gratuitous. They had heard of home rule, but they had not considered it, or turned it over, or "taken it in," as the phrase is, or dreamed that anybody of note or consequence was disposed to treat it seriously. They were disgusted with both Gladstone and the Irish for having such an idea, seeing how well Englishmen had got on without it. Nobody in England, they said, felt the need of a Parliament in Dublin; why, then, should the Irish want one, and why should Gladstone propose to give it to them? They pronounced it, therefore, as Mr. Arnold does, in a recent letter to the London *Times*, a "leap in the dark." All novelties in legislation in England are to the English mind "leaps in the dark." Catholic emancipation was one. Lord Eldon

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said it had caused "the sun of England to set forever." The Reform Bill in 1832 was another. The Duke of Wellington did not see, he said, if it passed, "how the King's Government was to be carried on." The Reform Bill of 1867 was also denounced by a large number of those who are now most vigorous in their opposition to home rule as "a leap in the dark." In fact, we believe these very words were used about it by Lord Sherbrooke, then Mr. Robert Lowe. All change is objectionable in a greater or less degree to the typical English mind simply as change, and it foresees hardly anything but evil from it.

We see some illustration of all this now in the gains Gladstone is making by waiting. As the weeks roll on, home rule is losing many of its terrors, and many of the Liberals who ran away when it first appeared are coming back. Mr. Chamberlain finds that but few of his followers are willing to stand by him to the end. Consequently the Tories and timid Liberals are anxious to bring the pending debate to a close as soon as possible, while Mr. Gladstone wishes to prolong it. He knows that time and resulting familiarity with his plan tell in its favor. He knows that the English public needs time to make up its mind, and that it cannot make up its mind about anything without getting used to it.

THE STUDY OF THE LAW AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

It is a well-known fact that in Germany every one who wishes to practise law, or enter certain of the most important branches of the public service, must study law for at least three years at a university and pass two State examinations. One of these examinations is to be taken at, or shortly after, the close of the academic triennium, and the other at least four years after the first. As a matter of fact, the first is ordinarily taken three years and one-half after the student enters the university, and the second five years after the first, making in all a preparatory course of eight and one-half years before the student is admitted in full standing to the bar. All this is in addition to the completion of the course in the gymnasium, or classical college, which takes the student on the average until his twentieth year, and which must be finished before the student is admitted to the university. In spite of this long preparatory course, the complaint comes to us from Germany that too many students are studying law, that the supply is outrunning the demand. In a recent number of Conrad's *Jahrbücher für Nationalökonomie und Statistik* Professor von Schulte, in an article entitled "Das juristische Studium auf den deutschen Universitäten," discusses some very interesting phases of this question which should be of interest to students of university matters the world over.

The author begins his discussion with a reference to the valuable monograph by Professor Conrad, which was reviewed in the *Nation* some time ago, in regard to the attendance at German universities during the last fifty years, arranged according to faculties. The first interesting phenomenon is the great fluctuation in the number of students at different times in the history of the same institution. Thus, Berlin had 1,441 students of law in 1881, while it had only 348 in 1860. Breslau varied from 101 in 1841 to 432 in 1877; Halle, from 186 in 1832 to 42 in 1860; Leipzig, from 257 in 1862 to 1,130 in 1875; Munich, from 898 in 1852 to 212 in 1874; Kiel, from 113 in 1834 to 9 in 1872. For these facts it is hard to find any satisfactory explanation. Thus, the time of greatest attendance at Bonn occurred in 1851, when the leading professors did not lecture at all, owing to absence in Parliament. Twelve of the universities reached their highest attendance at a time which had nothing to do with the great extension of study that followed the wars of 1866 and 1870. The six old Prussian universities—Berlin, Breslau, Halle, Greifswald, Koenigsberg, and Bonn—had the smallest attendance during the years which followed the earnest warnings of the Prussian Ministry from 1855-60 that the business of studying law was being overdone. Five of the universities had their lowest attendance in 1870, which seems natural. On the contrary, Munich and Erlangen declined steadily from 1867 to 1880. Another interesting fact is to be found in the great difference in attendance between the winter and the summer semester. The greatest difference is to be seen in Berlin and Heidelberg, the former having at times about forty per cent. more students in the winter than in the summer, while the latter has fifty per cent. more in summer than in winter. Heidelberg and Freiburg, indeed, may fairly be called summer resorts for the German students.

The largest attendance at the different universities varies greatly. Berlin had at one time more than 1,400 law students, while Leipzig never reached 1,150, nor Munich 900, nor Heidelberg 600, nor Bonn 400, nor Tübingen 300, nor any of the rest 275, except Breslau and Goettingen, which at one time came near to 450, while Rostock never got above 72. The explanation of this great difference is found by the author in a variety of circumstances, the most important of which are the following: (1.) The large number from the immediate neighborhood of the university. Thus, nearly 10 per cent. of the students in Berlin come from the city itself, while in Munich more than 10 per cent. are from the city. (2.) The attraction which a capital city exerts upon the future lawyer or Government officer. This is particularly noticeable in Berlin and Munich, and is especially clear in the case of Berlin since it became the capital of the empire, as is seen from the great increase in attendance from outside of Prussia since 1870. (3.) The price of living, which is lower in a large city than in a small one. The rooms in a large city are perhaps somewhat dearer, but any one who wishes to economize can do so much better in a large city than a small one. The means of getting about are cheaper, and enable one to live at a distance from the university. The restaurants are better and cheaper. One who wishes to work is not drawn off by his companions, as he can always find students who also wish to economize and to work. Amusements are better and cheaper. For the impecunious student the great city offers decided advantages. It is, of course, the Paradise of him who has means. (4.) The universities of most of the States have an assured attendance, since all but Prussia require that the students shall spend at least half of their time at some university within the State, and where there is only one university it gets all the students for at least three semesters. Besides this, in some of the States the State examination must be passed before a board of examiners composed chiefly of university professors, and the students know that it is safer to hear the lectures of the examiners themselves. This accounts for certain tendencies at Munich and Tübingen. (5.) A chief reason for this great difference is also fashion, and a desire to see other universities. Thus, more than 40 per cent. of the Prussian students study at universities outside of Prussia, while less than 14 per cent. of non-Prussians study in Prussia. This is explained to some extent by the provision mentioned above in regard to studying at a home university. Less than 8 per cent. of the Bavarian students go out of Bavaria during their course; less than one-sixth of the Saxons out of Saxony; and less than one-third of the Würtembergers go out of their own State. To give an idea how extensive the habit of moving about among the different universities has come to be, the author makes an extract from the records of the University of Bonn, from which it appears that out of 200 students of law in 1875 40 had been at one other university, 41 at two others, 27 at three, and 7 at four other universities. In 1882 the facts were still more striking. Of 295 students, 47 had been at one other university, 70 at two, 45 at three, 17 at four, 1 at five, and 1 at six.

It is interesting to note that the author regards this feature of moving around from one university to another, which seems to be rather on the increase than otherwise, as a decided drawback to thorough work, although it is ordinarily held up, by Germans and foreigners alike, as a system which other countries might well adopt. The disadvantages of the plan are great both for student and instructor. A student who changes his university twice or thrice loses much time in getting accustomed to the place, in making new acquaintances, etc., so that the term time becomes very short indeed. The professors must go on the supposition that a large part of the students are new. Hence there can be no proper coördination of lecture courses. If a professor lecturing on the Pandects, for example, could be sure that his hearers had heard the courses on the history and institutions of Roman law, he could presuppose much. The various professors of Roman law could arrange their courses so that they would fit into each other. As it is now, each professor must take for granted as little as possible. The result of this is an absurd combination of courses on the part of the student. The average student, if he goes regularly to his lectures at all, takes those which come at convenient hours, takes the course which happens to be fashionable, etc. He wishes to attend as many different universities as possible; in summer he takes in the pleasant districts, in winter the pleasures of the metropolis, and withal hears continually the A B C courses, because they give him least trouble. Prof. Schulte says that the less said about the actual attendance at the lectures the soonest mended. It is a very good state of things if one-half or even one-third of the students regularly go to the lectures. The habit of performing during term-time their compulsory military service, which for students at the universities is limited to one year, interferes seriously with the attendance. The members of the *corps* and other societies among the students do not even pretend to go to the lectures.

The question as to whether the supply of law students does not exceed the demand is made the subject of a careful investigation. The law students are all looking forward to entering the Government service in some department or other, or practising law. The number of places in the civil service is, of course, definitely known, and, although it is continually on the increase, it is comparatively easy to estimate just how many new men will be wanted. The number of practising lawyers was until very recently limited by law to that number which in the judgment of the court was necessary to do the legal business of the community. Although the number is not now limited, yet as a lawyer must engage in the practice of his profession exclusively and not embark in other business, which is regarded as inconsistent with the dignity and duty of an advocate, it is plain that the number is very much smaller than in such a community as our own. It is, moreover, tolerably easy to estimate the number of lawyers who can earn a fair living by the practice of the profession alone. The num-

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ber of positions in the civil service which are open to the educated lawyer in Prussia, and the number of "livings" from law practice, amount, according to our author, to about eight or nine thousand, about four hundred of which become vacant each year. The universities and courts are now turning out yearly about eight hundred and sixty assessors, as those are termed who have completed the second examination, making about four hundred and sixty more than can find positions in the Government service or openings in a practice. The author concludes that the number of students should decline by at least six or eight hundred before supply and demand will be fairly equalized.

Prof. Schulte concludes his article with the statement that certain measures, which, in the opinion of all who have studied the question, are imperatively necessary, should be immediately taken to check the enormous attendance. These measures he indicates to be (1) the lengthening of the period of university study by at least a half, and better by a whole, year; (2) the adoption of some means to secure the actual attendance of students at the lectures. The best means to do this would be to hand over the first examination entirely to the universities, so that the examiners in this test should be the professors themselves. A second means would be to introduce an examination at the end of the second year, and make the passing of it the condition of being promoted to the third year of the course. It is significant that both these changes would be in the direction of our American college system.

It may seem strange to an American that such universal complaints come to us from Germany that there are too many students at the universities; but such facts as are here given us make it clear why it should be so. If a man spends the years of his life from the sixth to the twenty-ninth in preparing himself for one career, he is very likely to be unfit for any other; and if there is no place for him in the one he has chosen, he is likely to make a poor showing in another calling where he must compete with men who have spent all the years he has given to the law to the work of preparation for that particular branch. A system which requires for each calling a special and long-continued technical training, is also a system in which a man cannot go from one branch to another: having been educated for one thing, he must stick to it. It is easy to see how, under such circumstances, a calling may be easily overcrowded without any hope of relief except by the comparatively slow process of discouraging young men from entering the preparatory stages. This is the state of things in Germany to-day, and the Government is actively exerting itself to discourage attendance at the universities. Another interesting fact about the German university is the class of considerations which determines whether a student shall enter one faculty or another. Unpleasant reflections are often made upon the devotion to the material side of life which is supposed to be characteristic of the American; but it may fairly be doubted whether any higher institution in the world affords a better example of a pure and undying devotion to the bread-and-butter aspects of life than a German university, where the mass of students rush this way or that, taking up law, medicine, theology, or teaching, indifferently, according to the prospect of finding Government employment soonest in one branch or the other. The only difference between Germany and other countries is that the Government of the former, with a wise foresight for the ideal side of life, has made a bread-and-butter employment of devotion to pure science, and has connected with this pursuit substantial rewards which are not to be had in other countries, and which have brought it about that Germany now stands at the head of modern nations in nearly every line of scientific achievement.

THE IRISH HURLY-BURLY.

LONDON, May 13, 1886.

Is Mr. Gladstone riding for a fall, or is he going to save the second reading of his Irish Government Bill by some great stroke of policy at the last moment? Such is the problem on which every political mind is now at work. Your readers may perhaps be weary of following the turns and changes of this home-rule debate, but there is nothing else in which our people can be induced to take any interest. Bills which at any other time would have raised debates of some importance drag wearily through their successive stages; and on the nights appropriated to private members the House of Commons is counted out as a matter of course. Lord Rosebery is working away at the irrepressible "claims of Greece," not without credit to himself; but his proceedings are hardly noticed by the active politicians who used to rouse the echoes of Willis's Rooms in the days when the Eastern question *was* a question for every elector. Troubles are not wanting in Burmah; there is a new fishery dispute (not a very serious dispute, I hope) in Canada; but these matters will hardly find their way into the question paper of the House of Commons until we know what is to happen to the Irish bills. All the prophets had made up their minds that the Prime Minister would make any effort and almost any concession to procure the acceptance of the principle of home rule. Mr. Chamberlain had formed his own estimate of the price that would be offered for his support. But all forecasts were falsified by Mr. Gladstone's speech of Monday night. He offered no concession; he made no special effort to convince or conciliate anybody except Lord Hartington—the one Liberal adversary whose vote is not to be had on any terms. As for Mr. Chamberlain, he was simply ignored; at one point he was brought within the scope of Mr. Gladstone's argument, but not by any personal reference; only by a backward wave of the hand which seemed to recognize him as a feature in the political landscape. This is not what Mr. Chamberlain is accustomed to, and he expresses his feelings and his intentions with even more than his usual frankness.

What does it all mean? It may mean that Mr. Gladstone feels that he has the country with him, and that he hopes to overcome the Liberal opposition, not by persuasion, but by the threat of having them ruled out of the party. Or it may mean that he no longer hopes to overcome; that he wishes to provoke defeat. If the Irish-Government Bill is rejected, he will be able to choose between several policies, any one of which affords him a hope of ultimate success. He may advise the Queen to dissolve Parliament. It is true that her Majesty is not bound to act on the advice; the constitutional rule is tolerably clear on this point, and it was laid down with emphasis by Mr. Gladstone himself in 1873. But if the Queen should prefer to send for Lord Hartington or Lord Salisbury, and if either of these gentlemen should undertake to form a Government, the dissolution must come, and that before long. Meantime Mr. Gladstone might hold the balance of power in the House of Commons, while enjoying leisure enough to make a series of great speeches out of doors in favor of home rule, and so to prepare a triumph for himself at the general election. Supposing (not a very extreme supposition) that the Queen is not strongly disposed to favor Mr. Gladstone and his bill, she may perhaps think it wise to dissolve. The Liberal party is now in complete confusion, and the Gladstonian section of the party could hardly succeed in ousting all the good Liberals who oppose the bill. The transfer of the Irish vote would not quite make up for the loss caused by internal divisions; and if there were a loss of twenty or thirty seats to the Liberals, they would still have a majority, but they would have sustained a moral defeat sufficiently marked to justify the Lords in rejecting or modifying any measure of home rule. But the chance of a moral defeat for Mr. Gladstone, if we suppose it to be an inducement to dissolve, ought not to prevail against the strong reasons which forbid a dissolution in the middle of the first session of a new Parliament, and in the busiest season of the agricultural year.

The delays and doubts of British parties are putting a severe strain on the patience of the Irish members, and they are bearing the strain very well. In private as in public they take a rational and moderate tone; they seem to be sincerely desirous of putting an end to the long struggle in which they are engaged, and if they obtain a separate legislature, I believe they will do their best to make it work. They admit that the provisions, and especially the financial provisions, of Mr. Gladstone's bill are likely to cause serious difficulties; but they hold that difficulties may be overcome if Englishmen will only go a little way to meet the spirit that will be evoked in Ireland by the concession of independence. One member from Munster assures me that an "incalculable effect" has been produced on popular opinion in his neighborhood by the mere promise of home rule. He added a remark which is worth recording: "You must not think," he said, "that the Irish people follow a constitutional question as you follow it. They care very little for all this discussion about powers and limitations; if you give them something they can call a Parliament, why, you may draw its powers yourself, and they won't object." While the Parnellites display the cheerful moderation of a winning party, the Ulstermen are in a state of dangerous excitement. It is certain that some of them are buying gunpowder, and sensational newspapers do their best to aggravate the dangers of the situation by talking loud nonsense about civil war. It is very unlikely that there will be anything to call war; but it is quite possible that there may be firing of shots. For some time past the people who buy up old Government rifles have found a market in Ireland, and especially in Ulster. The Protestant farmers have become accustomed to attend political meetings with rifles and revolvers; and when Lord Iddesleigh was in Ireland he had to caution his friends against firing off their guns "in the lightness of their hearts." And now the editors of certain London papers are doing their best to persuade these excitable persons that if they rise against a Parnellite Parliament, Lord Wolseley, and Lord Charles Beresford, and a host of loyal officers will throw up their commissions to join the revolt. According to credible witnesses, the two noble lords specially named have used very strong language about the Irish Government Bill and its author, and about their own Parnellite countrymen. But before we have time to construct an Irish legislature they will probably see cause to moderate their zeal for the Union, and they may even do good service by showing their friends in Ulster what exactly is meant by war, and what responsibility rests on those who begin it.

In the eighteenth century, members of the House of Commons, if they travelled beyond the history and constitution of their own country, drew their examples and warnings from classical antiquity. In our day it is the fashion to refer to the laws of foreign countries and the policy of foreign statesmen. This home-rule controversy is constantly enlivened by the introduction of side issues from every unexpected quarter. Why

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were Holland and Belgium separated in 1830? Is the present Constitution of Austria-Hungary a success? and (a question some omit to ask) what *is* the Constitution of Austria-Hungary? Does federal government work well in the United States? This last question receives various answers, according to the taste and fancy of the individual debater. Politicians of the Chamberlain school assure us that it works admirably, combining the maximum of national dignity with the maximum of local independence. Anti-federalists assure us that the system produces confusion and over-legislation; that no country can provide fit men for two sets of representative bodies. We are also told that the federal system gives too much importance to lawyers and to the legal element in politics. Our own experiments in constitution-building do not seem to help us much in the present difficulty. We know how to establish a self-governing colony; but then no British statesman will admit that Ireland can ever become as independent as New Zealand. We have tried our hands at confederation in Canada; but then it is just a little doubtful how far the experiment has succeeded. There certainly has been a good deal of litigation between the Dominion and the provinces; Quebec has more than once pursued what Scotch theologians call "divisive courses." Nova Scotia, which has welcomed Mr. Gladstone's bill with effusion, is itself in the act of proposing to secede from the Confederation. All these cases are now more or less in point, and they are cited freely on all sides. If this controversy has no other practical result, it will at least have made considerable additions to the legal and historical knowledge of our people. R.

THE HOME-RULE MOVEMENT.—I.

ITS STRENGTH.

OXFORD, May 13, 1886.

THE revolution in England moves apace. But a month has passed since my last letter, and the movement for home rule has already entered on a new stage. My present object is to analyze, as dispassionately as may be possible to an opponent, the causes to which that movement owes its strength. In my next communication I shall say something of its weakness.

1. The primary condition on which depends the success of Mr. Gladstone's new policy is a peculiar state of English opinion.

For the first time in the course of our history our national policy is under the influence, not so much of democratic convictions, as of a much more formidable thing—democratic sentiment. Every idea which can rightly or wrongly be called popular, commands, even among persons who think themselves Conservatives, a ready assent. Hence (be it at once admitted) flow some of the best characteristics of our age. Hence the detestation of inhumanity; hence the growth of the conviction that property has at least as many duties as rights; hence the faith that by some means or other the toiling multitudes ought to share in the prosperity which is due, in part at least, to their ceaseless labor. Hence, too, arise a host of dubious, not to say ignoble, ideas, as that the voice of the majority is the voice of God; that it is useless to struggle with any prevalent phase of opinion; that any body of persons who claim to be united by a sentiment of nationality have an inherent right to be treated as an independent nation. It were needless to explain how the currency of democratic sentiment tells in favor of home rule. It is, however, worth pointing out that democratic ideas at the present day exert far less influence from any enthusiasm they excite, than from their singular capacity for dissolving the convictions by which the claims of every kind of revolutionists are opposed. The argument that if Irish householders had votes, the majority of the United Kingdom must concede anything which the majority of Irish householders desire, is logically absurd; but, combined with other causes, it convinced a Conservative Government that in Ireland the executive was under no obligation to enforce the law of the land. The most curious, however, and the most alarming feature of the situation is the way in which democratic sentiment blends in the minds of modern Englishmen with feelings of a much less respectable order. Dislike of trouble, hatred to the performance of arduous political duties, indifference (one is constrained to add) to ordinary commonplace ideas of law and justice, are at the present moment influencing both members of Parliament and, it may be feared, the electors on whose wishes the conduct of members of Parliament depends. It is hardly too much to say that half the arguments used by politicians in favor of home rule amount simply to this: that five hundred and odd English gentlemen cannot be expected to resist the continuous pressure of the eighty-six Parnellites. Respectable members of Parliament yield, to the terror of being bored, what their fathers would not concede to armed rebellion.

2. No foreign observer can fully appreciate the immense influence exerted by Mr. Gladstone's personality. He represents in his person in a very singular way the best and the worst features of the sentiment of the day. He is also one of the few modern politicians who possess the energy which characterized the statesmen of the last generation. When you add to this that he is, to use his own language, an "old Parliamentary hand"—that is to say, a thoroughly trained and very skilful party manager—you understand part, at least, of the sources of his influence; but there is a good deal more in this influence than it is easy to sum up in a few words. High personal character has at all times told very strongly on the imagination of Englishmen. It was admittedly quite as much the superior morality as the genius of Chatham and his son which made the two Pitts the heroes of England. George the Third, with all his dulness and his cunning, was a popular idol because he was the "Good old King"; and Mr. Gladstone is to the electors the "good man" of English politics. In part by his merits and great powers, in part also, in my judgment, by his genuine sympathy with some of the weaker sides of English sentiment, Mr. Gladstone has obtained a hold on popular feeling which he can hardly lose. Fickleness, as Macaulay pointed out long ago, is not really the vice of the people. The masses cling to their idols; it is more doubtful whether they choose the objects of their admiration with perfect discretion. But the influence of the Premier is, it is fair to remember, due to a great extent to a circumstance independent of either the merits or the defects of his character. Modern democracies, in Europe at least, show a marked tendency, which is not in all respects a bad one, to place more store by persons than by principles. The people (they feel) can judge of a man's character; they cannot judge of his policy. The result is, that the one predominant idea which sways the conduct of thousands of electors is that Mr. Gladstone's policy must be supported simply because it is Mr. Gladstone's. No sensible person doubts that his present policy would not have had a hearing if proposed by any other politician. Few cool observers can, I suspect, doubt that if Mr. Gladstone were to vanish from the political arena, two-thirds of his followers would hasten to explain that they had never meant to favor home rule. I can easily believe that the Prime Minister himself would admit the difficulties besetting his policy far more readily than would his followers. It is quite possible that Mr. Gladstone is not a Gladstonian.

3. Many persons who are neither swayed by sentiment nor victims to the disease of Gladstonianism, are so impressed, and naturally enough, with the failure of all past attempts to govern Ireland; they are so disgusted with the weary round of concession following on coercion, and coercion again succeeding to concession, that they are willing to try almost any experiment which may give a chance of closing the secular feud between Great Britain and Ireland. This feeling harmonizes well with the kind of political hopelessness which prevails among many of the educated classes. Mr. Gladstone is the most sanguine of optimists; it is quite natural that he should exert exaggerated power over men who feel their own lack of hope. A moralist or statesman may condemn all forms of despair; but it is the merest justice to persons who are not likely to receive just treatment from partisans of any class, to recognize the fact that Mr. Gladstone's proposals are supported by men, who appreciate its dangers, because they see in it at least a chance of making a new departure in our Irish policy. Nothing is so idle as to suppose that statesmen such, for example, as Lord Spencer, are influenced by the spirit of vanity or affection. They may be taking a leap in the dark, but they are taking it to escape from what they deem to be an untenable and intolerable position.

4. English parties, and especially the Liberal party, have of recent years been organized on a plan which approaches the American model. We have our caucuses, our managers, our wire-pullers—in short, our "machine." At the present moment the Machine, as far as the Liberal party is concerned, is worked wholly in Mr. Gladstone's interest. There is no need of explaining to the citizens of New York all that this means, but they will easily perceive that the fact of Mr. Gladstone's supporters being in command of the party mechanism greatly favors the movement for home rule, or indeed any movement which may be identified with the name of the Prime Minister. One curious result, however, of our new party organization may escape the attention of American observers. A new element of uncertainty is added to the numerous difficulties of ascertaining the true set of opinion among the electors. No one knows how far the resolutions of so-called public meetings do or do not express the feeling of the public. It is impossible to tell how far machine-made opinion may not pass current for the genuine article. In any case, members of Parliament are rendered extremely nervous about their seats should they oppose the party, and the party is at this moment identified with Mr. Gladstone. Here, however, I am nearly touching upon the weakness as well as the strength of the home-rule movement, and that topic I purposely reserve for my next letter.

A. V. DICEY.

THE DUC DE BROGLIE'S RECOLLECTIONS.

PARIS, May 6, 1886.

THE publication of the 'Souvenirs' of the late Duc de Broglie, the father of the present Duke, has begun. One volume has appeared, and I hear that it will be followed by the publication of two others. Among the men who have played some part in the affairs of their time, few have resisted the temptation to write such memoirs: "Ecce enim breves anni transeunt, et semitam per quam non revertar ambulo." The biographical notes which are now published were written when the Duc de Broglie was already advanced in years; they have not the form of a journal, you do not feel in them the spur of the occasion. They are wanderings over the past, but what a past!—the French Revolution, the Empire, the return of the old dynasty. The preface is written in a grave, solemn style:

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"I have lived more than seventy years, I have gone through an epoch of disorders, of misfortunes, of crimes. God has spared me neither misfortunes nor defeats; he has given me the grace never to ignore the wisdom of his ways, nor the excellency of his works. I love life. 'Je l'aime et la cultive,' says Montaigne, 'telle qu'il a plu à Dieu nous l'octroyer.' I enjoyed it in my infancy, in my youth, in my middle age; I enjoy it still in my old age, mildly and gratefully. I regret nothing of what the progress of years has successively taken from me. I feel that, if we live long, we gain definitively more than we lose; and if we can belong to our age and to our time, as fast as the exterior man gets destroyed, the inner man gets renewed."

The Duc de Broglie was not a pessimist of the modern school, a misanthrope. He had a certain sort of serenity which came partly from good health, partly from self-contentment, partly from philosophy. I saw him in the latter part of his life, under the Second Empire. He was out of active politics, but he kept his interest in all the events of the time. He was much occupied with philosophical speculations, and saw the affairs of the world from those *templa serena* of which Lucretius speaks. He liked to speak in aphorisms, and when he had hit on a good one, he rehearsed it frequently. I heard him once, speaking of the policy of Napoleon III., at the time of the *Coup d'état*, when the future Emperor was coquetting at the same moment with the Socialists and with the Conservatives, say pointedly: "He says to the wicked, 'I am with you,' and to the good, 'I protect you.'" He was so pleased with this formula that he repeated it, as it were to himself, three or four times.

The Duc de Broglie was born in Paris, November 28, 1785. His grandfather was Marshal of France and Governor of Metz. His father was only thirty years old, and was Colonel of the regiment of Bourbonnais; he had, three years before, in 1782, joined the army commanded by Rochambeau in the United States. His regiment had reëmbarked for an expedition against Jamaica, and had returned to France after the signing of the peace. A manuscript of the journal of Colonel de Broglie exists among the papers of the family. The Colonel married a lady of Swedish extraction, who had large estates in Alsace, where her family had been established since the Thirty Years' War. Judging from the picture of her which is at Broglie, she was a person of great beauty.

The Marshal emigrated at the beginning of the Revolution. His son, who had adopted liberal ideas, remained in France, and was a member of the Constituant Assembly. He afterwards joined the army of the Rhine, under Luckner; he had himself Desaix, then a mere lieutenant, as his aide-de camp. His brothers, who had joined the Marshal, disavowed him, and would have no further communication with him. He was, nevertheless, ill looked upon by the Jacobins; he lost his command, and was finally arrested. He died on the Revolutionary scaffold June 27, 1794; his wife, who was reserved for the same fate, succeeded in making her escape from prison and fled to Switzerland, through the mountains of the Jura. She returned to France after the ninth Thermidor. Young Broglie had found a second father in M. d'Argenson, and received, during those terrible years, such an education as could then be received in France. He was capable of learning from events and things as well as from books; his mind was very receptive, and his character acquired in infancy a strength which it always preserved. When he was in Paris, he saw the remains of the old society mixed with the lights of the new society; all social distinctions seemed to have been lost in blood. As a very young man he made the acquaintance of Mme. de Chevreuse (who was afterwards exiled by Bonaparte), of Talleyrand, of M. de Narbonne, of the Suards, who received in their salon the Abbé Morellet, Garat, Daunou, Ginguené, the latest philosophers.

The first time he saw Bonaparte was in the garden of the Tuileries "giving his right arm to Bourrienne, keeping under his left arm a little Turkish sword: thin, slender, with a yellow complexion and a wild look." He saw him again at the château of the D'Argensons, when the Emperor was on his way to Spain. "All was changed: the bust was short and fat, the little legs fleshy; the complexion sallow, the forehead bare, the face cut like a Roman medal." Nobody, at the time, understood Spanish affairs, and the Duc de Broglie seemed to think that Napoleon himself had no idea what he was going to do at Bayonne. "He had surely prepared the trap, but he did not know exactly how much prepotency, wickedness, and perfidy would be necessary to attain the end." He describes very vividly the unexpected arrival, some time afterwards, of the King of Spain, of the Queen, and of the Prince de la Paix, who were sent, as prisoners, to Fontainebleau. The house of M. d'Argenson marked one of the halts of the royal party. The prisoners arrived in the same carriages which had taken Philip V. to Spain, enormous gilded carriages, with glasses on all sides, more fit for gala ceremonies than for a long journey; "and this was Spain, was the house of Bourbon!" The King was tall, bald, strong-looking, but merely strong in body. The Queen looked a very clean, nice little old body, dignified and reserved:

"Then came out of the carriage the Prince de la Paix, whom we have seen so long in Paris, a sort of cross between the butler and the *chasseur*. . . . The King did not stay a minute in the apartment which had been prepared for him; he walked incessantly in the château and in the gardens, shouting, 'Godoy, Godoy!' He would not lose sight of his favorite, and he finally established himself with him in the billiard room. . . . The Queen remained in her apartment. She received my mother with dignity, gravity, kindness, and put all sorts of royal questions: 'How many children have you? How many boys? How old are they? How long has this château been built?' . . . The name of Napoleon was never pronounced."

Three months afterward came the news of the catastrophe of Baylen.

In 1809 the Duc de Broglie was named *auditor* of the Council of State, and as such was attached to the Ministry of War. He performed various missions to the armies in Austria; he was afterward sent to Spain and again to Warsaw, on a diplomatic mission, of which the Abbé de Pradt was the head. He was attached to M. de Narbonne at the time of the Conference of Prague, and was initiated into all the negotiations which followed the disastrous war of Napoleon in Russia. One day the Emperor was talking with M. de Narbonne of this Russian campaign: "'After all,' said he to M. de Narbonne, who repeated it to me the same evening, 'what does all this cost me? Three hundred thousand men, and in this number there were a good many Germans.'" The Congress of Prague lasted twenty days, but it ended in nothing, and the Duc de Broglie returned to France full of sad apprehensions. He goes rapidly, with a feverish step, over the last days of the Empire, and begins his third book in these words:

"In the night of December 31, 1813–January 1, 1814, the Allies, after having long hesitated, crossed the Rhine between Spire and Bâle.
"January 24, the Emperor left for the army.
"March 31, Paris capitulated.
"April 2, the Senate pronounced the *déchéance*.
"The Emperor abdicated on the 11th.
"Louis XVIII., recalled to the throne, entered France on the 29th.
"May 2, he conceded the general principles of the *Charte* in the declaration of Saint-Ouen.
"The 30th, he opened the two Chambers."

The Duc de Broglie saw these great events as a mere witness: he took no part in the conclaves of the Legitimists. He witnessed the astonishment of the Parisians when they saw the allied armies from the hills of Montmartre and heard the first guns. "Nobody believed in anything, everybody expected everything." The Duc d'Artois arrived, and all the royalists went to see him in the Tuileries; then came Louis XVIII., escorted by the generals and marshals of the empire. "I saw, as a mere *curieux*, the great procession. I followed it from street to street, from boulevard to boulevard, as far as the Tuileries. I think that I am not mistaken if I say that there was a double current—one composed of people like myself, and it was by far the largest, curious, sad, resigned; the other, composed of ardent royalists, limited in number, but noisy and demonstrative." The King looked serious and unmoved; the Duchess of Angoulême was grave. The generals on horseback were visibly agitated and uneasy.

We come now to a curious passage in the memoirs. The Duc de Broglie received an invitation to take a place in the new House of Peers. He had desired to offer himself as a candidate for the House of Deputies, but he was only twenty-nine years old, and by the new law the candidates were to be at least forty years old. "I was not personally prepared for the compensation which was offered to me. It may seem extraordinary, but it is nevertheless true—I had completely forgotten that I was the head of the oldest branch of my family, the heir to the Dukedom of Broglie, and that, as such, since a House of Peers was created, I must necessarily be called to it." The fact is certainly a curious one. During the Empire the Duc de Broglie was merely called the Prince de Broglie; but that he should not have been conscious of his rights, shows how profoundly the French Revolution had mixed all the social elements in France. The Emperor had continued what the Terror had begun. We are living now in 1886, under a third Republic, and the passion for titles has never been so great as I see it. We have now society papers which give the lists of guests at a great party classified as the names are classified in the list of a levée at the Court of St. James—dukes and duchesses first, marquises, counts, viscounts, etc. This is quite an innovation in a country where the ancient rule was "un gentilhomme vaut un gentilhomme," and where mere titles were almost unimportant, except the title of *duc et pair*, which conferred a privilege. It must be supposed that the powers of imagination are very strong. At any rate, the young Prince de Broglie had forgotten in 1814 that he was a duke; his uncle, Prince Amédée, who was a friend of the Prince de Condé, remembered it, and so the unconscious Duke received a letter which summoned him to the Tuileries. "I found myself," says he, "transported suddenly, by the mere flow of events, to the first rank in society and in the state. I had not deserved it by my services; I had not made myself unworthy of it by my feelings, my language, and my conduct. There remained nothing for me to do but to use well this unexpected good-fortune."

At this very moment the Duc de Broglie was preparing to marry the daughter of Mme. de Staël. He tells us, at the end of his first volume, the history of Mme. de Staël during the Empire; of her return to France, with her son, her daughter, with M. Rocca, her second husband, and with Wilhelm Schlegel. He draws a portrait of this celebrated person, which is full of life, and of a warm and enthusiastic admiration. Her salon was the rendezvous of all the illustrious strangers whom the Restoration had drawn to Paris. The Duc de Broglie became acquainted there with the Duke of Wellington, with Canning, Sir

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James Mackintosh, Humboldt; with Chateaubriand, M. de La Fayette, Benjamin Constant. During the "Hundred Days" she left Paris. The Duc de Broglie remained, and he describes all the incidents of this dramatic period which came under his eyes.

Correspondence.

CABINET OFFICERS ON THE FLOOR OF THE HOUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to call your attention to a bill now before Congress which, though of considerable importance, has not attracted the attention and discussion which it deserves. I refer to the bill giving Cabinet officers seats in the House of Representatives. It was introduced many months ago by Mr. Long, of Massachusetts, and was referred to the Select Committee on Reform in the Civil Service, where it now lies, and where it will continue to lie unless there is some popular agitation for or against it. The subject is an interesting one, and has been much talked of for many years by the public-spirited; and as it is now before the country in proper form, we should at least have a discussion of it, and find out what the wise and learned have to say.

The bill is in the following words:

"*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled*, That the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Secretary of the Interior, the Attorney-General, and the Postmaster-General shall be entitled to occupy seats on the floor of the House of Representatives, with the right to participate in debate on matters relating to the business of their respective departments, under such rules as may be prescribed by the House."

It will be observed that the bill gives members of the Cabinet seats in the House of Representatives, and the right to debate and answer questions, but not the right to vote. It might be said that the privilege should not be confined to the House, and that the Cabinet officers should be given seats in the Senate also. But this is matter for amendment and may be passed by here, as I am at present concerned only with the main issue of the question. The bill is clearly constitutional. The Constitution says that "each house may determine the rules of its proceedings"; and it has always been the custom for Congress to give the privilege of its floor to whomsoever it pleased. Nor is the bill a violation of the clause in the Constitution which says that "No person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office." A Cabinet officer with only the privilege of the floor cannot be called a member. He has neither the right to vote, nor freedom from arrest, nor any of the essentials of membership.

It is to be further observed that the bill does not make the members of the Cabinet hold their offices at the pleasure of Congress. In other words, there is no resemblance to the English system of a responsible ministry. In England, the Cabinet resign as soon as a majority of Parliament is opposed to their plans and policy. But our Cabinet officers will, under the change proposed, hold their positions whether Congress is with them or against them. In England the legislative and executive departments are merged, and the executive is simply a committee of the legislature. But it is a fundamental principle of our form of government to keep the legislature distinct from the executive. To have our Cabinet officers go in and out at the pleasure of a majority of Congress would require an amendment to the Constitution. The object of the present bill is simply to make the means of communication between Congress and the departments more convenient. Communication is now carried on between them by resolutions calling for information, and the information is furnished in writing: when mismanagement is suspected, an investigating committee is appointed, which takes testimony in secret and reports to the House. Congress cannot obtain easily from the departments the information which is necessary to intelligent legislation, and the heads of departments have no say, except by lobbying, in legislation which concerns their work. But if the Cabinet officers have seats in Congress, information will be obtained more readily and accurately, and, what is of still greater importance, openly, before the whole country. By the questions put to members of the Cabinet on the floor of Congress and their answers thereto, the people will be kept constantly informed of the doings of the Administration. There will also be an additional check on the Government, and frauds when suspected will be more easily traced and punished. The Administration, in its turn, will have the opportunity of defending itself openly before the people, and of exercising a salutary influence on legislation. Neither legislature nor executive will gain power at the expense of the other, but the power of each to check the other will be increased; and this is in exact accord with the theory of the Constitution.

There recently appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* a very able article entitled "Ministerial Responsibility and the Constitution," in which the writer took for granted that there was a movement on foot to introduce a responsible ministry in this country, and then he proceeded to prove that it was in violation of the Constitution, and would, by merging the executive and legislature into one and making Congress all-powerful, destroy our principle of balanced powers of government. He succeeded in this most admirably, and showed himself a good constitutional lawyer and a valuable citizen. But he wasted his excellent ammunition and soiled his gun all for nothing. He fired at a phantom of his own creation. No one has any intention of setting up a responsible ministry in the United States, and there is no bill for that purpose before Congress. Such a thing could only be accomplished by an amendment, and an amendment of that sort could not be carried. F. G. S.

May 18, 1886.

TEXT-BOOKS IN CHEMISTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article on text-books of chemistry, which appeared in your last issue, there occurs a passage which calls for an explanation from me. It is this: "Mr. Shepard makes Dr. Remsen appear as a quasi-godfather to his book. Our surprise at this, and belief that in some way Dr. Remsen's apparent endorsement must be due to a misapprehension on the part of Mr. Shepard, are strengthened by the publication, after a short interval, of an elementary text-book by Dr. Remsen himself."

I beg to say that Mr. Shepard has said nothing which he was not fully justified in saying. At the request of Messrs. Ginn & Heath, I some time ago consented to examine Mr. Shepard's book in manuscript, and afterwards I agreed to make such changes and additions as I thought were called for. It seemed to me that the book was likely to prove useful in showing teachers how they could keep their pupils profitably at work in the laboratory from the beginning of their study. The lesson taught by the book is that chemistry can only be learned in the laboratory, and that the book is only a guide to experimental work: and this is a lesson which certainly needs to be taught above all others in chemistry.

As to the fact that "after a short interval" an elementary book by myself appeared, I have to say only this, that I did not begin my book until I had had a free correspondence with Mr. Heath and Mr. Shepard, and they had expressed themselves in the most friendly way in regard to the proposed work.—Yours very truly,

Ira Remsen.

Johns Hopkins University, May 24, 1886.

A BAD LOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Bear's statement (*Nation*, No. 1089, p. 393) about the character of the Irish majority—"a crowd of Fenians, priests, rogues, and paupers"—puts me in mind of the late Jones McCarthy in the 'Dodd Letters': "He loved his country, and it was a treat to hear him praise it. 'Oh,' he would say, 'there's but one blot on her. The Judges is rogues, the Government's rogues, the Grand Jury's rogues, and the people is villains.'"

Bear-ing the Irish stock, isn't it?

Respectfully, F. H. S.

Springfield, Mo., May 19, 1886.

A HAPPY THOUGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me through the *Nation* to make a suggestion for the settlement of the labor question and the solution of the silver problem, believing it will commend itself to all who are logical in thought and Christian-like in desire. The suggestion is this: Pay the eight-hours workmen with the eighty-cents dollar. Y.

Notes.

'Cut,' a West Point novel, by G. I. Cervus, author of 'White Feathers,' is in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

'Aspirations,' a story by Helen Hays, will be issued this week by Thomas Whittaker.

Harriet Martineau's 'The Peasant and the Prince,' edited with notes for schools, and a new edition of James M. Whiton's 'Six Weeks' Preparation for Reading Cæsar,' are announced for next month by Ginn & Co.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish directly 'The Labor Question in America,' by Prof. Richard T. Ely; and 'A Vital Question; or, What is to be Done?' from the Russian of N. G. Tchernishevsky, by Nathan Haskell Dole.

The title of Miss Macfarlane's forthcoming novel, 'Children of the Earth,' is said to be derived from *Rosencrantz's* reply to *Hamlet's* inquiry of him and *Guildenstern*, "How do ye both?" The scenes are laid on the shores of Nova Scotia and in New York society.

Mr. William Archer, the author of 'English Dramatists of the Present Day,' and one of the most careful and acute of English dramatic critics, is collecting certain of his magazine papers into a volume, 'About the Theatre,' to be published by T. Fisher Unwin.

As a private souvenir of a 'long-shore cruise from Boston to Mt. Desert in a steam yacht, the 'Log of the *Ariel* in the Gulf of Maine' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.) would be safe from criticism. Much taste has entered into the embellishment of it, and an expenditure of money probably sufficient to have made it at once more valuable and less costly to a circle of readers not specially interested in the small party and their insignificant adventures. If, for example, instead of drawings from photographs, we had had photogravures like the frontispiece showing the

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Ariel from the original negatives, the book would have been better worth preserving. The owner is to be thanked, however, for an appendix frankly revealing the qualities and dimensions of his yacht, her accommodations and boilers, so that other like-minded voyagers may profit by his experience.

The maps of the United States at the close of the Revolution, in giving the Western claims which formed the basis of the cessions of the several States, assign to South Carolina a narrow strip west to the Mississippi River, affording a problem to the historical student which he is seldom tempted to solve, in view of the insignificance of the strip in question. Mr. W. R. Garrett, in his 'History of the South Carolina Cession and the Northern Boundary of Tennessee' (Tennessee Historical Society Papers; Nashville: Southern Methodist Publishing House, 32 pp.), has given a lucid and interesting account of the matter—in which, however, we note an apparent discrepancy of dates: "Mar. 8 of the same year" (p. 10) should, we think, be 1787; but the last date mentioned was 1786. On the same page Mr. Garrett corrects an error of Hildreth, who says that the lines described in the South Carolina cession "included nothing," whereas they were "valid, though useless, claims," embracing a strip twelve miles wide. The historical importance of this act is in its being the first cession of southwestern lands, and being probably designed to exert a moral pressure upon the neighbor States. The North Carolina cession followed in 1790, that of Georgia in 1802. The paper upon the northern boundary of Tennessee is longer, but is more a matter of detail and merely local interest.

Apropos of the recent call in these columns for an improved English Grammar, a correspondent writes us from Detroit that Sill's 'Practical Lessons in English' (A. S. Barnes & Co.) fills the bill, and has stood the test of the class-room.

Every one understands that no one who begins drinking desires or expects to become a drunkard, nor indeed at the first believes that he can be harmed by his pleasure. Such is not the opinion of many students, and Dr. A. B. Palmer, in the 'Temperance Teachings of Science' (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston), without passion shows the risks that the moderate as well as the immoderate drinker runs. This is a temperate presentation of a controversy sometimes waged with more zeal than kindly discretion.

In 'A Text-Book of Nursing,' modestly said to be compiled, by Clara S. Weeks (Appleton), there is an amount of good sense and clearly expressed precious information that rarely is found between the covers of one book of its kind. Probably its greatest value will be in the education of mothers and daughters who cannot be trained nurses, and who know that sickness must come into their families; but in the training of professional nurses and as a book of reference it will hold no mean place. "Air cannot be renewed by disinfecting it, any more than it can be disinfected by deodorizing"; "The use of a feather bed is nearly equivalent to putting the patient into an immense poultice"; "Cleanliness takes precedence in a hospital ward of all the other virtues"—are random extracts showing one face of its teaching. Besides being indexed, and having a glossary of unaccustomed words, it is followed by a copious body of questions that emphasize and give point to the teaching.

Shepard & Johnston, Chicago, send us the 'Library Catalogue and Index,' a blank book, of small quarto shape, arranged for 1,500 titles, with provision for a full description in each case, including price and position on the shelves. The index tracks the book by its author, and by its subject or title if desired. The scheme speaks for itself.

According to the latest advices, the International Copyright Bill, which is in charge of Mr. James Bryce, was half through committee in the House of Commons, with every prospect of passing. We regret that we can point to no preparations at Washington to put the United States in a position to enter the International Copyright Union. The existence of this Union, however, cannot fail to induce a sentiment in favor of our joining it sooner or later.

The last book of M. A. Loiseau, 'Histoire de la littérature portugaise depuis ses origines jusqu'à nos jours' (Paris: Thorin; Boston: Schoenhof), is a mere compilation. The scanty information dealt out is not taken from original sources; nor does the writer seem to know of the existence of some of the best books on his subject. Even such a work as Ferdinand Wolf's 'Littérature brésilienne' appears not to have been used by him. Except for one or two very vague phrases upon the press in Portugal, M. Loiseau's information stops before 1850, and all that is said about the nineteenth century might be condensed into a couple of pages. Nor are the more ancient periods treated with any precision or completeness. In the chapters on the 'Amadis de Gaule' the writer shows that he has no sources of information more recent than the unreliable work of Baret, which dates back to 1853. Thirty-four pages of matter bunglingly put together, on the 'Origin and Formation of the Portuguese Language,' are intercalated in the course of the work. In these the author shows that he has not used, at least with any profit, the grammar of Diez, which he complacently quotes as one of his sources.

For the eleventh time MM. Édouard Noel and Edmond Stoullig have issued their theatrical yearbook, 'Les Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern). It is an invaluable record of the events of the year in Paris. The fault we should find with it is that it is too bulky, and that the same facts might be more briefly recorded to greater advantage. The preface this year is an essay by M. Charles Gounod, called "Considérations sur le Théâtre contemporain," and devoted to a discussion of the present condition of the opera in France. M. Gounod rebukes the star-system, and sneers at the French imitations of Wagner.

Col. Chaillé Long's 'Three Prophets—the Mahdi, Gordon, Arabi' has just been published in Paris in a French translation, and so has Miss O'Meara's 'Un Salon à Paris: Mme. Mohl et ses intimes.'

The volume of collected 'Préfaces et Manifestes littéraires' of Edmond and Jules de Goncourt (Paris: Charpentier) will be accompanied by a bibliography of their writings compiled by M. Maurice Tourneux.

Our mention of the little exercise book, 'The Bridge,' in the Notes of May 13, seems to have been misleading, as it contained an inaccurate statement. It is merely a very small book of difficult exercises, some of them rather puzzling, with not a word of explanation. The first edition, the only one we had seen, was signed Oliver Straightways. A new edition appeared in 1885, increased in size but really much diminished in quantity, signed N. Perini (London: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof). This contains nothing directly bearing on Pseudo-Synonyms, such as *improuver*, which is not 'to improve'; *lard*, which does not mean 'lard,' and similar words.

Although there are not a few books on bookbinding, æsthetic and practical, all book-lovers will gladly welcome a work just announced in France—'La Reliure Moderne, artistique et fantaisiste,' by M. Octave Uzanne (Paris: Édouard Rouveyre; New York: F. W. Christern). M. Uzanne is a writer with whose style readers of *Le Livre* are familiar. 'La Reliure Moderne' is to be abundantly illustrated with plates, both colored and plain, by the Albert-Dujardin process. There will be a special limited edition on Japanese paper signed by author and publisher, for subscribers only.

In a memoir presented last autumn to the Academy of Inscriptions, a curious confirmation of some Chaldean inscriptions is drawn from the petrology of Brittany. They had been interpreted to mean that the stone for the statues of diorite on which they occur had been brought to Chaldea by water, in ships which collected it at the foot of the cliffs on the sea-side. This seemed very unlikely to some critics, who thereupon threw doubts upon the whole system of interpreting Chaldean inscriptions. But last summer M. Heuzey, with this controversy in his mind, happened to visit the diorite rocks on the Bretagne coast, and he saw at once that the disputed interpretation was probably right. Diorite is exceedingly hard, and it is difficult to get off blocks of any size by the usual methods of quarrying. But what man can hardly do, frost and the waves are continually doing. Great pieces become detached and fall down upon the beach or the talus where boats can easily get them in calm weather.

As supplementary to the list of recent philological works of a compendious character, mentioned in a late number of the *Nation*, attention should now be called to two important undertakings of the Strassburg publisher, Karl J. Trübner: 'Grundriss der romanischen Philologie,' to be edited by Gustav Gröber, the well-known editor of the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*, and, secondly, a 'Grundriss der germanischen Philologie,' under the editorship of the Freiburg professor, Hermann Paul. With Gröber are associated twenty-six co-editors, specialists of first rank, to whom are assigned severally the various departments and phases of the subject. Names like Tobler, Bartsch, Deecke, Kluge, Schuchardt, and Windisch assure the essential soundness of the work. Of the six parts proposed, the first, comprising 280 pages, has just appeared (price, four marks). With Paul are associated in the editorship of the second-mentioned work men of standing like Sievers, Sweet, Kluge, Noreen, Kögel, Wegener, and Behaghel.

Dr. J. J. Egli, of Zürich, author of a meritorious 'Nomina Geographica,' published in 1872, did much by that work to stimulate research into the origin of geographical nomenclature. He is now publishing in parts, through Friedrich Brandstetter, Leipzig, a 'Geschichte der Geographischen Namenkunde,' which is a bibliography and something more.

In his annual report to the Royal Astronomical Society, Mr. Christie, Astronomer Royal at Greenwich, states that, on the recommendation of the Board of Visitors, the Treasury have sanctioned an important addition to the optical means of the Observatory in the shape of a refracting telescope of twenty-eight inches aperture and twenty-eight feet focal length. This new telescope is to be mounted in place of the old equatorial, the glass of which is thirteen inches in diameter, and which has been the largest instrument possessed by the Observatory for more than a quarter century. Of late years the Royal Observatory has taken the lead in spectroscopic observations of the stars, and the new instrument will make a large increase in the number of stars available for this special work, which relates more particularly to their motion in the line of sight. The construction and mounting of the telescope have been intrusted to Mr. Howard Grubb, the well-known optician and mechanician of Dublin. At the time when the telescope is completed, it will probably rank third or fourth in size among the great telescopes of the world.

The summer courses for practical instruction in chemistry at Harvard University will open

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July 5 and close August 14, and will be under the direction of Mr. Arthur M. Comey, of the Chemical Laboratory at Cambridge, to whom applications should be addressed. These courses are designed for all classes of students, but more especially for teachers, and are open to both sexes. Instruction will be given in general chemistry, qualitative analysis, quantitative analysis, organic chemistry, and mineralogy.

—The June *Atlantic* contains the first classical paper that we have seen in the magazines in a long time. It is the story of that attractive man who has come to be considered the most modern of the ancients—the younger Pliny; and so strong is the persuasion of his contemporaneity with the moderns in many essentials, that the writer has felt no impropriety in dubbing him "A Roman Gentleman." The events of his life are profoundly interesting, especially if one reckons among them the incidents of those other noble careers which touched him nearly. How fresh, as if it were of yesterday, does the narrative of the great eruption of Vesuvius in which his uncle made so good an end, still stand out; with what naturalness and charm the figure of the young nephew himself steals upon the page, doing what he could, beside his mother, in his boyish way, "to imitate the gods," and continue his studies unmoved by the black convulsion of nature. Great characters and famous deeds were nigh to him always: Verginius, his guardian, who twice refused the Empire; Arria, and the line, faithful to her, whose one sure inheritance was the death by which they gave the world a memory of stoic virtue worthy to close the Annals of Tacitus; Trajan—but we must leave the story to the authoress, who has dexterously set it in the landscape of Lake Como, and has kept mainly to Pliny himself, refined, humane, philanthropic, the lawyer and administrator, the lover of art and books and men, with the finest respect for women, and a conscience as pure as justice. Somehow we cannot think of this Roman as a "gentleman"; he was (let us not deceive ourselves) of another time. One turns to the true modern age, not without misgiving, where he will certainly find it, reflected in Mr. Lathrop's long review of Balzac. It is the old story—and is it only our fancy that Mr. Lathrop rehearses it with reluctant assent?—how Balzac is "a physiologist in a very literal sense," and we do not "reproach a physiologist for not having an ideal," and that any way Balzac is the Paris of his age. It may be so; but when all is said that can be urged for "the science of novel-writing," we think it a part of man's good fortune that there was no Roman Balzac. A Pliny is enough for what was noble, and the brevity of Tacitus ample for what was infamous. Commend us to such portrayers of life!

—*Harper's*, apart from its serials, its comedy from standard literature of the last century, and its little poems, is predominantly industrial; for one may fairly regard the naval article in that light. This is by Rear-Admiral Simpson, and, with the cuts, it gives a view of our navy and an account of the high perfection to which modern invention has brought the science of the warfare of iron against iron. The paper upon the sugar industry is a complete monograph, like the others of the series to which it belongs, and has a wonderful amount of information regarding the crop, manufacture, and mercantile value of sugar. In certain ways, too, it has a relation to current politics, but only by virtue of some of the facts it contains. There is also a readable contribution from a traveller in the region of the Cumberland Gap, the South being now a favorite hunting-ground for the magazines; and, indeed, there is no country that will better bear exploration with respect to the picturesqueness of the land or the oddity of the inhabitants. The gardening department is conducted by Mr. Roe, whose "Home Acre" is as capacious as Noah's Ark, and has a corner in this number for the vineyard and the orchard. The issue, which is the first of a new volume, seems to emphasize the aim of the magazine to be the favorite of "the home circle" wherever found.

—No one can read without a kindly feeling for the author Mr. J. C. Derby's 'Fifty Years among Authors, Books, and Publishers' (G. W. Carleton & Co.). What succeeds a brief and modest autobiographical introduction is a series of sketches of publishers, authors, and public men with whom Mr. Derby has been brought in contact in his long career. These are unpretentious in form, abound in curious anecdotes, and will be found eminently readable. Mr. Derby learned his trade in Auburn, N. Y., under Mr. Henry Ivison, who afterward became the head of the greatest school-book publishing house in the world. In 1852, with a brother and partner in Buffalo, Mr. Derby engaged in the venture of founding a bookstore in San Francisco, in charge of Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft, a brother-in-law of Mr. George Derby. Everybody knows what has come of this besides establishing a most profitable publishing-house on the Pacific Coast. An early partner of Mr. Ivison, again, in Utica, was S. Wells Williams, the future Chinese scholar, missionary, and diplomat. Mr. George Derby, on removing from Geneva, N. Y., to Buffalo, left in charge of the business a former clerk, William Orton, afterwards President of the Western Union Telegraph Company. With his neighbor, William H. Seward, at Auburn, and the Conklings, not far off, Mr. J. C. Derby became acquainted through propinquity as well as in the way of business. These names we have selected (and many others might be added from the same pages) as reminders of the part which Central New York has played in the production of the great moral, political, industrial, and financial forces of the present century on this continent. Mr. Derby takes no thought of this in furnishing illustrations of it; but nothing else in all his book has impressed us so much.

—For some unexplained reason, the statistics of the Astor Library for the last library year show a large increase in the number of readers over the former year and any preceding year. This increase occurs among both the general readers and the alcove readers, and perhaps indicates that the library is becoming better known. But such a statement at this period of the library's existence seems a strange reason. Certainly, however, the new day has brought new wants, which the reader finds the Astor able to satisfy; and it is strange, not that so large an increase took place last year, but that, with so valuable a collection, the library's means of accommodating the public, in this large city, were not long ago exceeded. The books there, however, do not appeal to the ordinary reader or the usual lounger of the public library, who could easily be induced to occupy all the vacant room, but to the scholar. Yet the library has always had a large constituency towards whom its relations have been rather charitable than literary; and it will continue to have, probably, till the great city free circulating library is built, which will at once benefit the city in general and the Astor Library (by enabling the latter to concentrate its work more) in particular. According to the president's report, the total number of readers last year was 72,584, while in 1884 it was 59,057. In 1881 the number was 44,123. By the same report, with the superintendent's and the treasurer's, it appears that the number of books bought last year was 5,719, and the whole number added 6,852, not including pamphlets. $24,376 were expended for books and binding. The quick fund of the library is $411,550. This has been supplemented for a number of years by an annual gift of $15,000 from Mr. J. J. Astor for the purchase of books; and this, we understand, does not represent the whole of Mr. Astor's late donations, as the expense of the new catalogue, now printing, is also his special gift. The whole invested fund of the library to date, including increase, is $1,412,374.77, and the whole number of volumes is supposed to be 221,490, an increase of 69,000 in the last ten years. In July the library published a list of the more important accessions for the year, a 12mo volume of 141 pages, making the fifth annual list since 1881. It continued, also, a series which had been published at more frequent intervals since the fall of 1878.

—The great event of the present year at the Astor Library has been the printing of the new catalogue, of which the first volume has just been issued. It makes a very large book of 1,118 pages, and is printed (the main entries) in small pica, a luxurious kind of type and very easy to read. The old catalogue, in four vols., 1857 61, was also printed in this type; but the present volume is far superior in its mechanical arrangements to the former, and presents a more elegant page on account of the omission of the frequent dashes which the older work used to represent the same surname. In the new, every new author's surname, though the same as the preceding, is printed in full. Further, instead of giving initials only, as the old catalogue did, and burying them up in the title, great pains have been taken to ascertain the full names of authors, and print them in the vernacular; and, as authors' names are also printed in capitals, we have at once not only a more varied page than the old catalogue gave, but a greater clearness of page, and consequent ease of consulting it. As to other outside differences, italics in references have not been used, as they were not in the old catalogue, although they had been in the Supplement; and perhaps it would have been better for the sake of added clearness if they had been retained. But (another improvement) while the old catalogue used only one kind of type throughout, in the new, besides capitals for authors' names, the contents of books have been printed in bourgeois, and where this occurs we get a still greater variety of page.

—In what pertains to the science of cataloguing, aside from the mechanical appearance of the book, we notice in the new volume, which has been prepared mainly under the charge of Mr. C. A. Nelson, a closer approach to the uniform rules, as now recommended by the American Library Association, than in Dr. Cogswell's original catalogue, although similar rules were then followed by the British Museum and approved by other eminent cataloguers. Thus, in the matter of anonymous entries, the old catalogue put titles under the first leading word, and this method, combined with a desire to arrange anonymous and often other titles under headings where they would, in the opinion of the cataloguer, be most readily found, led to frequent subject-entries, although in an author-catalogue, and although a subject-index was afterward printed separately. These subject-entries occur rarely in the present volume, which has been made (with a few exceptions, rather survivals from the older work) simply an author-catalogue. One large exception occurs, however, in biographical articles and historical works relating to towns, which are here frequently catalogued under their respective subjects, and are printed in bourgeois. A characteristic feature of the old catalogue, that of printing neither a mere finding-list, nor, on the other hand, a catalogue of bibliographical fulness, has been followed in the present work. A mean title has been given, sufficient to identify

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the book, though, of course, not to give all the information contained in the title-page; but this development may well be left to a later subject-catalogue. The old catalogue was often rather loose in transcribing titles, and frequently changed the order of words, etc., in titles for the sake of brevity. In a work whose execution covers so long a time as the present there will probably be found the marks of different hands, but the catalogue undoubtedly conforms much more nearly to the present requirements of bibliographical science than the old. This might have been expected. The old one did a good work in its day, and, as it is not superseded, it will continue to do so. It unlocked to the public the stores of the library very soon after they were collected, as the library was chartered in 1849, and opened in 1854. It contained a great deal of information in the way of contents of collections, and frequently printed these contents under their respective authors. These often required many pages, as may be seen under the headings: Shakespeariana, L. A. Muratori, J. P. Migne, etc. It also had other merits. But the new catalogue has gone further in the work of analysis, as may be seen on referring to the transactions of many learned academies; yet not to the fullest extent, on account of the great bulk to which the catalogue had already swollen. Even here a wise economy has been shown; and instead of printing again contents which other printed catalogues have spread out on their pages, reference is made to them, to the catalogue of the Boston Athenæum, Boston Public Library, etc. The catalogue's bulk is owing, too, partly to the including and consequent superseding of the Supplement printed in 1866. It was a wise proceeding, as well as a generous one, to include the Supplement. It makes the contents of the library all the more accessible. The present volume, which will be followed by three others, records no additions to the library of later date than 1880. A great many books have been added to the Astor Library in the meantime, probably more than 30,000. These are recorded in the card catalogue, and are made much more convenient of reference from the fact that the catalogue drawers will be relieved of the 100,000 cards printed here. It is a fine gift that Mr. J. J. Astor makes with this work to the literary resources of New York city, and it will always remain a noble memorial of his generosity towards this library, which for three generations has been a favorite investment for his family.

—In making photography serviceable to the astronomer, a very serious difficulty was early recognized, in that the achromatic object-glass, as corrected for the ordinary visual rays of light, would not bring to the proper focus the chemical, or actinic rays, by which the sensitive plate was to be affected. If specially corrected for these latter rays, the telescope would be useless as an optical instrument. Rutherfurd was the first to demonstrate, some twenty years ago, that an effective and satisfactory compromise of the two desirable ends was feasible; and his researches showed that any achromatic objective, well corrected for the visual rays, might be readily converted into an effective photographic telescope by simply adding to the outside of the objective a third lens ground to the proper concavo-convex figure. Several photographic telescopes of this pattern have been constructed, and they have generally given satisfactory results. We note the announcement, a fortnight ago, that the great refracting telescope of thirty-six inches aperture, now constructing for the Lick Observatory, is to have its value greatly enhanced by the construction, in this manner, of a third lens, or "photographic corrector," as it is called. The necessary disc of glass in the rough is already made, and the Lick trustees have recently purchased it from the makers, the Messrs. Feil & Mautois, of Paris. The Clarks, who are now well advanced with their work of figuring the object-glass itself, will undertake the grinding and polishing of this photographic lens also. The chief importance of so huge a photographic apparatus will appear from the proportionate size of the original negatives of the celestial objects obtained with it, the diameter of Jupiter and Saturn on the photographic plate being about one-eighth of an inch, while that of the moon will be somewhat in excess of six inches. With the exceptional atmospheric conditions of Mount Hamilton, it may be expected that the very perfect negatives obtainable will admit of proportionate enlargement. The English optician Dollond, by the way, is generally accredited with the invention of that combination of lenses which has been of incalculable benefit to astronomy, known as the achromatic objective; but it appears, from recent inquiries of the Royal Astronomical Society, that Dollond's invention was antedated some twenty-five years by Mr. Chester Moor Hall, a bencher of the Inner Temple. None of the object-glasses made by Mr. Hall are now known to exist, but as late as 1790 there was one mentioned in the *Gentleman's Magazine* as being in the possession of the Rev. Mr. Smith, of Rathbone Place. The presentation to the Society, at its April meeting, of an old legal document bearing the signature of Moor Hall, became the occasion for recalling the facts in the case. There are thought to be materials in existence for carrying the investigation further.

RECENT POETRY.

HEINE says that the image of a nation's future is always to be found in the breasts of its authors, so that the critic who dissects a young poet with a knife sharp enough can easily prophesy the future, as soothsayers used to do from the breasts of slain animals. He adds that he would gladly slaughter a few of these victims, for his own share in the work of divination, but fears that he might behold things which he should not dare to utter. The more modern and American critic fears rather that he may see nothing worth the uttering; but while the older poets continue to publish their latest fruits, even Mr. Stedman will admit that there is something to be said. Just now there is also the peculiar interest that the comparative poetic reputations of two English-speaking nations are trembling in the balance. Now that Emerson and Longfellow are gone, Tennyson and Browning have it all their own way as regards contemporary fame; and the most ardent American will not grudge them precedence over Holmes, Whittier, and Lowell. Let the two great Englishmen die to-morrow, and the same precedence would by no means be conceded to Swinburne and Morris, but the star-spangled banner would assert itself; let all these die, and it is "anybody's race." Meanwhile it is impossible to deny that Browning is holding his own better at seventy-four than Tennyson at seventy-six. Part of the poems in 'Tiresias' are of early date, part are languid; and it is to be observed that in the most vigorous production, "Hands All Round," Lord Tennyson unkindly omits the good-natured verse about America which this song included when first published by Tennyson the Commoner, under the signature of "Merlin," in the London *Examiner;* and as this leaves the volume incomplete, we will take leave to insert the missing passage:

"Gigantic daughter of the West,
We drink to thee across the flood:
We know thee and we love thee best,
For art thou not of British blood?
Should war's mad blast again be blown,
Permit not thou the tyrant powers
To fight thy mother all alone,
But let thy broadsides roar with ours.
Hands all round!
God the tyrants' cause confound!
To our dear kinsmen of the West, my friends,
And the great name of England, round and round."

It is a resounding verse; but, after all, when we compare anything in the volume—except its occasional humor—with such superbly vigorous fruits of advancing years as Browning's "Echetlos" and "Muleykah," it must be owned that the less conservative poet bears his old age better.

The lapse of a few months always brings a harvest of home-born poetic volumes, of which some are easily classed as below mediocrity, others as just reaching that point, and others as deserving especial attention. Among those below what may be called the dead-line of criticism may almost always be included those first volumes which are preceded by a portrait and autograph. For some reason or other, the state of mind which thus protrudes its personal semblance on an innocent public is unfavorable to the writing of good verse. Thus, when Col. John A. Joyce offers his 'Peculiar Poems' (Knox & Co.), illuminated in this way, one is not surprised to find in the preface such an announcement as this: "I do not claim for my lines the imperial flights of Homer, Shakspere, or Edgar Allan Poe, but I do claim some of the simplicity, heart, and love found in Tasso, Goldsmith, Longfellow, and the Carey sisters." And the weary critic can usually construct, out of his inner consciousness, the style of poetry that will follow this claim. Another book of the same class, but more easily pardonable, is 'The Poet Scout: A Book of Song and Story, by Capt. Jack Crawford, late chief of scouts, U. S. Army' (Funk & Wagnalls). The portrait reveals the accustomed length of hair that we associate with the stage frontiersman; and the biography gives some really interesting facts, as that Capt. Crawford never went to school, and was taught to read by the Sisters of Charity, while lying wounded in a Philadelphia hospital after the battle of Spottsylvania. The book itself might well be popular, for it is a dime-novel in verse.

Another type with which the critic becomes gradually familiarized is that to which the thin monthly pamphlets called 'The Perpetual Fire' (Davenport) belong. They are apparently published by their author, and the flame they represent is that of a religious enthusiasm, to which all charm of poetic measure is sacrificed as ruthlessly as in the days of Sternhold and Hopkins. The writer wishes to do good; why, then, should he utterly lay aside all those rhetorical attractions by which alone he can win an audience? Even Moody and Sankey sing; but our author gives us such crude and harsh measures that if he inserted "In the Sweet Bye and Bye," it would be hailed with gratitude. Another constantly recurring type is the Indian or Aztec poem. 'The Inca Princess, an Historical Romance' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), by M. B. M. Toland of San Francisco, is founded on the career of De Soto, and is as melodramatic as many very sensational illustrations can make it, although the verse itself is rather tame. 'Tecumseh, a Drama,' by Charles Mair (Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.), is a Canadian work, and is sustained with some vigor, though a little heavy and monotonous. It is hampered, too, like all such plays, by the necessity of having humorous passages, which are here couched in a dialect such as is to be heard nowhere on earth; the furthest eastern and the furthest western Americanisms being intermingled without stint.

The collection in authorized form of Mr. Howells's 'Poems' (Boston: Ticknor) is an interesting fact in literary history, for it shows clearly the path by which he came to that realism on which he is now putting a possibly overstrained em-

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phasis. He came to it by the old familiar path of conversion, and his zeal is the proverbial zeal of a new convert. In his poems we have his wild-oats period: crude, diluted, and in the last degree sentimental. There is power in them, as the early development of a man of genius always shows gleams of power; but we fancy him now looking from the heights of his present severer faith and entitling this volume, like Miss Blanche Amory's verses, 'Mes Larmes.' Curiously unlike this uncertain and changing wake thus left behind by Howells's literary voyage is the even keel of Whittier, marking in youth as in age one straight heroic line. His 'Saint Gregory's Guest and Recent Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) might be a reprint of poems of his earlier years, but for the absence of the slavery question from their pages: they have his old-time purity and directness, and his early limitations on the side of musical structure. It is especially delightful to find him following in that broad path indicated in William Penn's 'No Cross No Crown,' and versifying the hymns of the Oriental Brahmo Somaj "as a fresh revelation of the direct action of the Divine Spirit upon the human heart" (p. 64). Compared with this wide receptiveness, even the genial and devout hymns of Rev. W. H. Furness, in his 'Verses, Translations from the German, and Hymns' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), show some of the barriers of the pulpit.

"Firdausi in Exile, and Other Poems," by Edmund Gosse (Scribner & Welford), produces that general impression of after-dinner confectionery which is so common among the younger London poets. And it is curious that when they essay a bolder strain, they are apt not to ripen, but rather spoil, as in the case of Michael Field, whose exuberant early fruit seems already a little tainted and over-purple. His (or shall we say her?) previous works suggested fear of this, but the three new dramatic poems, included in one volume —'The Father's Tragedy, William Rufus, Loyalty or Love?' (Henry Holt & Co.)—show this writer to be what an English critic, with probably unintentional satire, called "a tragedist"—rather than a tragedian. Nothing above the level of a Bowery theatre ever concentrated so many separate assassinations in a short space as appear at the close of this volume: in one place there are five separate murders or suicides within a page and a half. There is genuine power in these tragedies, but it is the power of the unknown author of 'Titus Andronicus,' not of Shakspere. At intervals there rise above the even surface of English poetry certain poets who attempt a more daring strain—Thomas Lovell Beddoes began this series some forty years ago—but they rarely seem to achieve anything beyond a turgid precocity. Miss A. Mary F. Robinson, who seemed in her 'Dream of Arcadia' to be going in this same direction, with a difference, has changed her course a little, after a visit to Italy, and now appears with a volume of dainty and melodious pessimism, having a heart-break at the foot of every page. It is 'An Italian Garden: A Book of Songs' (Boston: Roberts Bros.). Italy has certainly taught new graces to Miss Robinson; but it is a little tiresome to be called on to weep so constantly with the same poet, especially when that poet is very likely a comfortable Englishwoman with a good digestion and a proper appetite for lawn-tennis and Mudie's Library.

The American volume most in the vein of the mouthing English dramas is 'Sylvain; a Tragedy, and Poems,' by John Philip Varley (Brentano). The author makes one of his characters say of some tenor singer, the subject of conversation, that he "would sing a soft nothing of lunatic words with more mad airs and consummations of frenzy, more heart-beating passions, dilations of the chest, and swellings of the diaphragm, than ever a tom-cat at moonrise with Venus in the ascendant" (p. 18). Such a vigorous characterization shows Mr. Varley at least to sin voluntarily when he does this sort of thing himself; but there is among the smaller poems so much that is fresh and sweet, with just a racy flavor of seventeenth-century imitation, that the reader feels in a most forgiving mood before the end. If mannerism we must have, what an agreeable bit of mannerism is this:

TO ONE BEING OLD.

"Her aged hands are worn with works of love;
Dear aged hands that oft on me are laid;
Her heart's below, but oh, her love's above,
As flowers do sunward turn though in the shade.

"The set of sun is dear that lasts not long,
And she is sweeter far than light that dies;
But if her aged body's weak, she's strong,
Her folly, wisdom in a softer guise.

"The very smile of love is hers, and she
Hath him long known where others knew a shade;
Forget thine eyes, and learn herewith to see
Within this time-worn sheath the snowy blade.

"Upon her lovely cheek there still doth play
A maiden's blush, for her heart grows not old;
Her silver locks go sweetly all astray,
Though silver are her locks, her heart is gold!"
(P. 160.)

While certain English authors show decline, it is pleasant to find a veteran American poet reforming the defects of youth and shedding his mannerisms, even when he does not attain assured greatness. In Mr. William Ellery Channing's small volumes, 'Eliot' and 'John Brown' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), there is some sustained vigor and an absence of the whimsical. Both are in that somewhat varying blank verse which this poet has often employed, in which many halting or inadequate lines are relieved by continuous passages of much strength and beauty. The two poems are curiously unlike in their themes; Eliot himself being that type so dear to Mr. Channing's kinsmen of an earlier generation, Allston and Dana—the high-minded though erring recluse, who retires from the world and dies in solitude; while the John Brown he paints is the man of to-day, or of the immediate yesterday. There is a strain of Mr. Channing's old power in the conclusion. After painting the types of character with which his hero has been allied in the anti-slavery agitation, he thus draws to a close, his last two lines being as concentrated as Landor's:

"With this host he passed—
All that was acting on life's stage, he passed,
On crowding street, on miscellaneous wain
Towering with luxuries; the mill whose bleach
Was spun from bloody thread; the Court, the Church,
Where never yet that name of Slave was breathed;
He knew them well; 't was the loud treacherous world
He oft had dreamed of, masking Human Right,
Till one man touch the cords and launch the bark,
With loud acclaim, United Liberty!

"He came; he touched the cords; 'tis done!
The chain is snapt; the vessel leaves the shore."

The name of Mr. Channing naturally suggests that of Poe, his most virulent assailant. A late critic of Poe has pointed out that he has succeeded to the place held first by Byron and then by Swinburne as the patron saint of wilful boys suspected of genius. Mr. Andrew F. Underhill must at some time have belonged to this class, or he would not have begun his little volume of 'Etchings in Verse' (Brentano) by anything so flagrantly Poesque as the following:

"DESOLATION.

"In the kingdom of the gloaming,
Where the days are gray and dim—
Dim, and gray, and pensive;
Where the dead Past's thoughts go roaming
Like the fallen seraphim—
Once I wandered 'neath the lustre
Of a spectral, leaden moon:
'Neath a moon of lurid lustre,
Where the sad lights fade and swoon."
(P. 9.)

This fails to accomplish even a literary desolation. The truth is, that the uncanny and exceedingly unpleasant land where Poe hunted his ghouls and spectres is now closed for ever: it has vanished as completely as the "Great American Desert" of old Western maps, and it is happily useless to try to recover it. Later in the book, after a less successful "Imitation of Byron" (p. 85), Mr. Underhill becomes cheerful and humorous—even this being a relief.

We have often pointed out that, in default of great originality or poetic power, a volume of verse may have a certain value for its local coloring, because it preserves, even imperfectly, the traits or traditions of some particular region; since one poet will hereafter build on another, and every nation needs to be saturated through all its soil with picturesque associations. Thus the 'Songs of Sleepy Hollow,' by Stephen Henry Thayer (Putnams), celebrate what may be called Washington Irving's country; 'Needles of Pine,' a collection of "lines without rhyme," by Charles Wellington Stone (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), describes the aromatic pine-woods of New England. 'A Bundle of Sonnets and Other Poems,' by Henry Hartshorne (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates), includes Haverford College memorial verses, and has a flavor of the beautiful rural regions of Pennsylvania. 'The Thankless Muse,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), contains a pretty sketch of a New England garden, under the title of "Between the Flowers," and offers also some Yale College verses, not very inspired or inspiring. Mr. Henry Frank, in 'The Skeleton and the Rose, and Gems by the Wayside' (Brentano), has some verses celebrating the charms of Santa Barbara, Cal., and a really thoughtful poem on the old bell of the San Miguel Mission at Santa Fé; while Abraham Perry Miller, in his 'Consolation, and Other Poems' (Brentano), gives his readers the consolation of a commemorative poem on the discovery of St. Anthony's Falls in Minnesota. All these are successful in affording the flavor of some particular locality; but when, in 'America, and Other Poems' (Putnams), Mr. Henry Hamilton tries to do the same thing for a whole nation, he attempts more than he can grasp; and though he begins with a good generous purpose, among the emigrants at Castle Garden, he cannot hold a strain of sufficient compass. The rest of his poems are serious and earnest, but belong too continuously to the class of hymns.

Of American volumes by new poets, not relying mainly on local coloring for their value, we may especially mention three, all suggestive of hope, though not as yet giving absolute performance. The slightest of these three is a thin volume entitled 'In Fruitful Lands' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), by Minna Caroline Smith, apparently a student in the Harvard "Annex," and who inscribes her work in these modest lines to her would-be Alma Mater:

"TO HARVARD.

"The gracious Muse that crowns each minstrel soul
With hope and faith, bright laurels of her own
That time fades not, has a most joyous tone,
Singing thy future as the season's roll.

"I catch faint music from the coming days,
Nor hear the full, fine rhythm of the song,
But, echoing in the chorus sweet and strong,
Thy daughters join thy sons in love and praise."

Miss Smith shows in several instances—as in her three couplets called "June"—the power, rather unusual with beginners, of concentrating a distinct and vivid thought in a few clear-cut lines. A similar power, displayed in a difficult form, belongs to Miss Louise Brooks, whose 'A Year's Sonnets' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.) is an exquisite piece of bookmaking and a charming series of studies from nature. There is no trace of immaturity except an occasional want of perfect keeping in some symbol, as, in the "stained with mire," in this pretty sonnet:

"APRIL.

"Hark! the frogs' birdlike piping has begun!
To lace-work turns the ice by garden wall,
And the big snowflakes melt before they fall,
And willows with their yellow mock the Sun.
April comes dancing, clad in palest green;
Behind her, a black cloud with fiery rift.
One hand she raises, her blown hair to lift.
And free her heaven-blue eyes that must be seen.
One dainty foot, all bare and stained with mire,
Peeps from her hem heavy with buds unblown,
Half child, half woman: rosy now with fire,
Shrinking again in shade; the world unknown,

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To-day all smiles, to-morrow all despair,
Wayward and sweet, uncertain but most fair."

Maturer than either of these, although still a first volume, is the pretty little book called modestly 'Summer Haven Songs,' by James Herbert Morse (Putnams). Those who have heretofore known Mr. Morse only as a scholar or a prose critic, will be delighted at the self-control that has kept back his poetic work until it has taken a form so pleasing and thoughtful. The book is the reverse of sensational: those who look in it for turgid, meretricious verses of the "I am dying, Egypt, dying" type, will be wofully disappointed; but it is a volume for summer havens, as the name indicates—for those who will take it into the country and read it over and over, letting its quiet thoughtfulness sink into their minds, until it becomes a part of their actual summer life. How exquisitely touched, for instance, is this little picture:

"A MEMORY PICTURE.

"There is a scene deep-graven on my mind,
Once tinted with rare colors now half-gone:
On a fair bay, a boat; a merry wind,
Invisible, that thrust it gayly on.

"Along the crimson cushions at the stern
Are boys and merry girls with tell-tale eyes,
With speaking, rosy cheeks that seem to burn,
And lips half-open, framing sweet replies.

"Upon the bows two silent figures stand,
One with a kerchief waving a good-bye;
For this she could not spare her little hand,
Were not that other form so dearly nigh.

"How dull the painter that expressed so much,
Yet lost the thrilling sense of that sweet touch!"
(P. 91.)

Three new volumes have been lately added to the great Goethean library. Sir Theodore Martin gives us the Second Part of 'Faust' (Edinburgh: Blackwood); and neat and careful as his version is, it falls as visibly short of Bayard Taylor's as to give a perpetual feeling of disappointment. It is a curious fact that while there has been a rapid shrinkage, since Taylor's death, in all other aspects of his fame, the admirable merit of his 'Faust' becomes only more and more obvious; and it is clear that his permanent reputation is to be that of a translator and commentator in connection with the one monumental German book. In respect to commentary Martin attempts no rivalry; he indeed gives a few notes toward the close, but they are largely drawn from Taylor. The single advantage of his book will be in its small size and compact shape, making it the most convenient and accessible reproduction in English of the Second Part. The same advantage is not possessed by Mr. Frank Clandy's version of the First Part (Washington: Morrison), inasmuch as this portion of the book is now familiar in English through many different translations, and the external form of this one is rather awkward. It has, however, a peculiar interest, as being the work of a native German, and this after fifteen years of labor. We cannot agree with the glowing circular of the publishers, announcing it as "a splendid translation": but while it is far inferior both in ease and literalness to that of Charles T. Brooks, it has merits of its own. It would be curious to point out, had we the space to give to it, some passages in which the translator gains by his native intimacy with the German, and others where he loses again by his want of the same kind of knowledge of the English. Taking one of these last at random, we find that where Margaret apologizes to Faust for the hardness of her fingers, Mr. Clandy thus assigns the reason:

"What work have I not done! You'd never guess it!
For mother is much too exact." (P. 118.)

The German word here rendered "exact" is *genau*, which indeed means "precise" or "accurate," but quite as often "narrow," "parsimonious," or, in the rustic phrase, "near." Either of these last would have been a far more felicitous rendering; and on referring to Bayard Taylor, we find that he has "close," which expresses substantially the sense we urge. It is possible that Taylor's word and his own seemed substantially equivalent to Mr. Clandy; or, that the words "exact" and "exacting" may have confused themselves a little in his mind. Nevertheless, we accept his version as interesting and illustrative. The third book in this department contains 'The Poems of Goethe' (Holt) rendered by Commander Gibson. It is a thick volume of the smaller poems, and one cannot help respecting the zeal and patience implied in a work so extended and so careful. Commander Gibson had, it seems, the aid of Bayard Taylor in revising some of these; but it must be owned, after all, that the renderings are more remarkable for quantity than quality; and there is a frequent tendency to the prosaic or even the grotesque. To transmute the yearning "Dahin! dahin!" of Mignon's immortal song into "O thither! so" (p. 12) is bad enough; but it is difficult to treat the matter seriously when in another of her songs he gives us—the italics being our own—

"In severance and constraint,
My loved ones mourning,
Ah! I am giddy, faint,
My bowels burning:
Save with such grief acquaint,
None know my yearning."
(P. 347.)

Yet undoubtedly the book is to be welcomed, on the whole, as a most deserving effort. It will be remembered that it is not its author's first attempt in literature; and his previous volume of poems, although it contained no translations, yet took its motto from Goethe.

Of recent miscellaneous collections, 'Through the Year with the Poets,' edited by Oscar Fay Adams (D. Lothrop & Co.), is incontestably the best, and 'The Humbler Poets,' by Slason Thompson (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), as surely the poorest. The latter is a most presentable volume on the outside and a dreary waste within. The author says in his preface that he began his collection in his first boyish scrapbook, and the difficulty is to believe that he did not compile it all at that same period of life. The incidental merit of the book comes from the literary ignorance of the editor, for he occasionally stumbles, in spite of himself, on a good poem from Stedman's published volumes (p. 125) or from Helen Jackson's (p. 415); and gives it as anonymous. In great contrast stands Mr. Adams's series, whose editor is equipped with thorough knowledge, and spares no pains to give us the fullest details of information, such as the precise place and day of each author's birth and the successive names of every married lady. Each volume of this series represents the aspects of nature for a separate month, beginning with December and already including May; and although he, too, must sometimes draw from "the humbler poets," they exhibit in his hands some merit besides humility. By careful arrangement he has escaped something of the monotony that might be expected under his plan; and he has skilfully bridged over those differences of aspect which make a sort of poetic parallax, so to speak, between observations taken in England and America. These little volumes are neat, attractive, and exceedingly cheap; they are sold singly. A curious little book, with a quaint mixture of poetry and prose—genius, ecclesiasticism, and commonplace—is 'Time Flies,' by Christina G. Rossetti (Boston: Roberts Bros.). It has a thought or selection for every day in the year, but few of these are so exquisite as this:

"Innocent eyes not ours
Are made to look on flowers,
Eyes of small birds and insects small;
Morn after summer morn
The sweet rose on her thorn
Opens her bosom to them all.
The least and last of things
That soar on quivering wings,
Or crawl among the grass-blades out of sight,
Have just as clear a right
To their appointed portion of delight
As Queens or Kings."
(P. 158.)

Another collection which has at least a certain historical value is Frank Moore's 'Songs of the Southern People' (Appletons). It reads curiously, in the light of past events, and throws much illumination upon that mood of enormous bluster in which secession began. It is a great historical lesson, after the manly and candid addresses lately given at the North by former Confederate officers, to revert to the time when the Southern heart fired itself with strains like this:

"I'll sing you a song of the South's sunny clime,
Chivalrous C. S. A.!
Which went to housekeeping once on a time;
Bully for C. S. A.!
Like heroes and princes they lived for a while,
Chivalrous C. S. A.!
And routed the Hessians in most gallant style:
Bully for C. S. A.!

CHORUS. Chivalrous, chivalrous people are they!
Chivalrous, chivalrous people are they!
In C. S. A.! In C. S. A.!
Aye, in chivalrous C. S. A.!" (P. 96.)

ACTORS AND ACTRESSES.

Garrick and his Contemporaries. [Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States from the Days of David Garrick to the Present Time.] Edited by Brander Matthews and Laurence Hutton. Cassell & Co.

THE plan followed in this volume is that of giving in the case of each actor or actress a brief biography, reinforced by extracts from writers who have spoken of them. This produces a somewhat disjointed effect, but in other respects is interesting, as giving the reader a good deal of contemporary anecdote and criticism. It must be confessed that by far the best part of English stage literature is its anecdote. Most criticism, on the other hand, loses its virtue with age. There is something almost pathetic in the difficulty which the best writers have found in preserving even for a couple of generations the impression made by the greatest actors. Garrick is a great name to us, and we readily perceive that he must have been one of the great actors of the world; but when we are asked to listen to detailed accounts of his acting, or the differences between him and his predecessors, we soon lose ourselves in a maze of conjecture. He introduced or revived the "natural" style; but was the "natural" in Garrick's day what we should now call the natural? Read the contemporary criticisms of an actor of our day, of Booth, of Salvini, of Irving, and then ask what will our descendants make of this a hundred years hence, when they can no longer hear the voice, nor see the gestures, nor measure the effect upon the audience. It is the only art which leaves no memorials behind it. Literature has no proper means of preserving them. It is in a much worse position than that occupied by the art of poetry before the invention of letters, for memory then did the work which printing does now; but the difficulty is almost aggravated by the constant and ineffectual effort of literature to overcome it.

"Michael Angelo," as the editors say (quoting Mr. Lawrence Barrett), "to gratify the whim of a capricious patron, carved a figure of snow, expending on this as much thought, perhaps, as upon his immortal Moses or the imperishable dome of St. Peter's. The sculptor and the architect, the painter and the poet, live in their works, which endure after them; the actor's work dies when he dies. He carves his image in snow."

Perhaps the best attempt ever made to preserve by literary means the effect of an actor's method is the description of Garrick's *Hamlet* by Lichtenberg, which has only been translated into English within a comparatively recent period. It is appended to the account of Garrick in the present volume:

"*Hamlet* appears in black attire, the only one, alas, which is still worn in the whole court, for his poor father, who has been scarcely dead a couple of months. *Horatio* and *Marcellus* accompany him in uniform. They await the *Ghost*. *Hamlet* has folded his arms and pulled his hat over his eyes. It is a cold night and just twelve

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o'clock. The theatre is darkened, and the whole audience is still, and the faces as motionless as if they had been painted on the walls of a house. At the extreme end of the theatre one might have heard a pin drop. Suddenly, as *Hamlet* goes rather far up the stage somewhat to the left, with his back to the audience, *Horatio* starts. 'Look, my Lord, it comes,' says he, pointing to the right, where the *Ghost* is standing immovable, ere one is even aware of it. At these words Garrick turns suddenly round, and at the same moment staggers back two or three paces with trembling knees. His hat falls to the ground, both arms—especially the left—are nearly extended to the full, the hand as high as the head, the right arm more bent and the hand lower, the fingers spread out and the mouth open. There he remains standing with legs far apart, but still in a graceful attitude, as if electrified, supported by his friends. His features express such horror that I felt a repeated shudder pass over me before he began to speak. The almost appalling silence of the assembly, which preceded this scene and made one feel scarcely safe in one's seat, probably contributed not a little to the effect. At last he speaks, not with the beginning, but with the end of a breath, and says in a trembling voice, 'Angels and ministers of grace, defend us' —words which complete whatever may yet be wanting in this scene to make it one of the sublimest and most terrifying of which, perhaps, the stage is capable."

Nothing is here neglected, not even the life-like touch of real as distinguished from mock horror —that when the actor begins to speak, his violent emotion has taken away his breath. Lichtenberg saw and recorded everything, and his Garrick stands out before us a complete picture. We feel faintly in reading the same shudder that he says passed through him as one of this long dead audience of play-goers a hundred years ago. But the tone of voice, the pronunciation, the rhythm, the accent, almost everything that made Garrick himself and no one else, are vanished. It is a description of a work of art, instead of a work of art itself.

But nature is full of compensations, and if actors produce nothing permanent, the temporary impression they produce is something which painters, sculptors, and even poets may well envy; and, through their connection with literature, they live on in a remarkable way, long after what we may call their artistic identity is effaced. In the great periods of the drama there has always been a close connection between the stage and literature, and one of the most alarming signs of the present condition of the art is the divorce which has been effected between the two. The names of Macklin, Quin, Garrick, Sheridan, and Tate Wilkinson, which we find in the present volume, are rich with literary associations, and will live, by the humble aid of anecdote, as long as English letters themselves endure. We think, therefore, that the editors have done very wisely in determining to mingle biography and criticism with anecdote. There are to be five volumes of the series, with biographical and critical sketches of about seventy-five of the leading actors and actresses of the two countries from 1750 to 1886. We have already given the names of some of those considered in the first volume. Some of the writers are Austin Dobson (Katherine Clive, David Garrick, and Margaret Woffington), Brander Matthews (Samuel Foote and Thomas Sheridan), Percy Fitzgerald (Frances Abington and George Ann Bellamy). The second volume will treat of the Kemble period; the third and fourth, of the actors of the middle of this century (Edmund Kean, Junius Brutus Booth, William Charles Macready, and Edwin Forrest); while in the fifth volume the chief performers now before the public will be discussed.

We have little or no room left for further quotation, but cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of extracting another excellent piece of criticism (by means of which the manner of an actor has been well preserved in literature)—this time, however, not for purposes of admiration:

"Mossop, attached to military plan,
Still kept his eye fixed on his right-hand man;
Whilst the mouth measures words with seeming skill,
The right hand labors and the left lies still.
For he resolv'd on Scripture grounds to go,
What the right doth the left hand shall not know.
With studied impropriety of speech,
He soars beyond the hackney critics' reach;
To epithets allots emphatic state,
Whilst principals ungrac'd, like lacquies, wait;
In ways first trodden by himself excels,
And stands alone in indeclinables;
Conjunction, preposition, adverb join
To stamp new vigor in the nervous line;
In monosyllables his thunders roll,
HE, SHE, IT, and WE, YE, THEY fright the soul."

Mossop's name is now pretty well forgotten, though he was one of the leading actors of his day; but his method enjoys immortal life.

FURNESS'S VARIORUM OTHELLO.

A New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare. Edited by Horace Howard Furness. Vol. vi, Othello. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

MR. FURNESS has adopted for this play the text of the first Folio, which he reprints. The problem of the text of "Othello" involves some peculiar circumstances—as what Shaksperian topic does not?—but it is comparatively simple. The earliest Quarto was published thirteen years after the press had ceased to give first editions of Shakspere's plays, in 1622, just before the appearance of the Folio; and it differs from the latter by the omission of lines and by the retention of oaths. The second Quarto was issued in 1630, and though it restored many lost lines and showed other revision, it is clear that it was not under obligation to the Folio, but was a corrected edition of the first Quarto. The play, as we have it in print, thus represents two sources, two manuscripts: but whether either of these was from Shakspere's hand is doubtful, and it is generally agreed only that both reproduce acting copies of different dates and ownership. The readings of the Folio are as a rule so far preferable to the Quartos, especially the first, that there is no difference of opinion among scholars as to the priority of its claim to accuracy. The text given is, of course, from Mr. Furness's copy. Below it are the variations of the other printed sources and the emendations of the Shakspere editors, and below these such notes and quotations, from editors, lexicographers, critics, actors, and the like, as elucidate the meaning in detail, or try to do so. This work of selection and citation from the mass of Shakspere literature in order to produce a digest of scholarship and opinion regarding each play, which is the substance of a variorum editor's task, has been done with that thoroughness, tolerance, and good-nature, to praise which would now be an impertinence. In the appendix are the usual discussions and summaries in respect to the dates, sources, duration of plot, and impersonations by noted actors, and English, German, and French critical opinions, together with a few pages on the special topic of *Othello's* color.

The construction of a text, and the interpretation of the half-dozen *cruces* of verbal criticism which the play affords to the curious, are matters so narrowly limited in interest, and already so thoroughly threshed, that we shall not delay upon them. The play is, besides, tolerably plain, in the way of verb, and noun, and grammar. One or two of Mr. Furness's own suggestions, of which he is very sparing, are to be noted, such as his idea that *Roderigo* was disguised in Cyprus — "defeate thy fauour with a usurp'd Beard" (I. iii, 371). This is reasonable, and though not absolutely necessary to the working of the plot, in its minor intrigue against *Cassio*, falls in with the circumstances. It may not be superfluous to observe, too, that on the oft-quoted, much-disputed passage—

"It is the green-ey'd monster, which doth mocke
The meate it feeds on"—

Mr. Furness sustains Hunter and Staunton in interpreting "meate" as the jealous man; and that on another famous passage—

"Of one, whose hand
(Like the base Iudean) threw a Pearle away
Richer than all his Tribe"—

he sustains what has been regarded as the fantastical interpretation of Halliwell, who rejects the common emendation "Indian," and refers "Iudean" to Judas Iscariot!

The perusal of the notes reminds one again of the traditional weaknesses of commentators, and often stirs up wrath or humor according as the reader is amused with a fool or aches to bray him in a mortar. The experienced editor's genial attitude toward all comers is to be reckoned the last result of wisdom in this matter, and so, too, is the placidity with which he winds up discussions with the remark that it is not to be expected that Shakspere editors should agree where there is such opportunity for difference. What strikes one most is, of course, the persistency with which the obvious sense of a passage is sometimes missed by narrowness or obliquity of vision. It would seem that when some small-brained creature starts a doubt, no editor has the courage to leave the words to themselves again, but must join with the pack in worrying all meaning out of them. One such instance, in our judgment, is the speech of *Othello* (I. ii, 22-27):

"'Tis yet to know,
Which when I know that boasting is an Honour
I shall promulgate. I fetch my life and being
From men of Royall Siege, and my demerites
May speak (unbonnetted) to as proud a Fortune
As this that I haue reach'd."

Difficulty is found in the word "unbonnetted," on the ground that to be unbonneted is to confess inferiority of station (the opposite of *Othello's* intention); and the passage has been emended and explained in several ways. Now, if the present writer may hazard his untaught understanding of English that never gave a doubtful sense to him, the natural meaning is that *Othello's* services need no addition of privilege, but by their own worth put him, the mere man, on a level with his "proud fortune." Take "unbonnetted" with what precedes, and does not the course of *Othello's* thought run somewhat as follows? "It is not known that I am of royal blood. I do not mean to seek honor by boasting of that ancestry, nor need I; for, though I am a prince, I have done such services that they alone, without any outward badge of rank (such as this royal birth would be if I promulgated it), lift me to an equality with my 'proud fortune.'" This interpretation, unless it be contained implicitly in Fuseli's note, is not given; but it is by following *Othello's* brains as well as his words that one understands him. With this audacious example, we leave the student to build up his own text and get his own meaning out of the ample materials set before him; he cannot err more ridiculously than some have done among the commentators, and he will find the best of them wiser in their good sense than in the ingenuities of their learning. With the text we dismiss, too, the date of the play, set in 1604 on the authority of Malone's memorandum, which is accepted as representing the lost original on which the Cunningham forgery in the Master of Revels' Account was based. In this Mr. Furness follows Halliwell-Phillipps.

The general features of the commentary on this play are not without some peculiar interest. It has sometimes occurred to us that when our century comes to be analyzed in future ages, a favorite illustration of its materializing spirit will be found in its Shaksperian criticism. The dramatist's imagination has imposed itself upon our time for reality; and this, too, so far as the body of Shaksperian literature is concerned, not so much with respect to its poetic substance as to its theatrical accidents. In "Othello" we have a

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capital example of the sort of realism foisted on Shakspere because the plastic nature and symbolic significance of fact under a poet's handling are not apprehended. We do not refer merely to the attempt to date the action and make it tally with Venetian history, or to the scholarly effort of that admirable lover of Venice, Rawdon Brown, in which he tried to identify the Moor with a real lieutenant of the republic; so long as these are subordinate to the study of the sources of the play and remain in the region of historical fact, they have no offence in them. It is only when the domain of imagination, the play itself, is entered that the absurdity of confusing poetic truth (truth of representation) with historic truth (actuality of occurrence) becomes apparent. Out of the divergence of these two modes of truth arises the theory of Double Time, of which "Othello" is regarded as affording the best instance. According to this hypothesis, Shakspere reckoned by two kinds of time, the Dramatic and the Historical; the first is illusory, and measures the duration of the action on the stage; the second is real, and measures the duration of the action in its necessary course under the limitations and delays essential to its probability. The first appeals to the imagination, the second to the reason. Thus, as Rymer sneeringly pointed out, *Desdemona* is murdered within thirty-six hours after her arrival in Cyprus; and this is without doubt the dramatic time, the illusion for the imagination; yet the circumstances of the plot require a longer period and imply it continually, and in this latter Historical Time the reason finds the justification of the facts, the probability of the action. The discord of the two "times" is only discovered by reflection; it is not felt in the representation, and herein lies the poet's art; but an intrusive realism, dissolving the poet's synthesis, misses the imaginative unity of "Othello," and muddles itself in an attempt to understand how *Iago* could have asked *Emilia* "a hundred times" to steal the fatal handkerchief, how *Roderigo* could have spent all his wealth in a day, and *Cassio* have become so intimate with *Bianca*, etc., etc., until the poet's inconsistencies have been piled up, mole-hill on mole-hill, on the top of which the commentator flaps his wings.

Here, too, is the place to ask the horrid question—Was *Othello* black? Nay, more—Was he a *black negro?* There has been much ado over this, and the ethnographic and æsthetic whitewash has certainly toned down the jetty African of stage tradition to a very presentable light-brown gentleman. Time was when our stage *Othello* pulled off white gloves to emphasize his hue, and once this fine trick disillusionized a realistic spectator, who chanced to know that the inside of a black man's hands is whitish, like the soles of his feet and the skin of his new-born heir; but now dramatic proprieties have changed. *Othello* was not a negro, though his lips may have rolled just enough to suggest *Roderigo's* nickname; he was a Moor. Black, however, his visage was in Shakspere's mind, as Mr. Furness concludes, and therewith cites the inexorable passage—

> "My name, that was as fresh
> As Dian's visage, is now begrim'd and blacke
> As mine owne face."

"Grime" is not a synonym of light-brown. If any one requires the production of a live black Moor of "royall siege" before he believes this, let him search in lion-haunted Arden, where he will find many strange things.

But the most offensive example of what we have called the intrusion of realism in the interpretation of Shakspere is afforded by Mr. Furness himself in the professional opinions he prints, from eminent doctors of his acquaintance, in regard to the physical conditions of *Desdemona's* death. Was she smothered or (as the stage tradition says) stabbed? And, in either case, could both her smock and face have been pale? could she have revived and spoken, and then died without further violence? The doctors practically agree that, although a fatal stab would not necessarily cause effusion of blood in any quantity, she was smothered. Dr. Agnew decides that she died from "secondary effects of injury to the larynx"; Dr. Brinton says "cardiac exhaustion"; Dr. Hammond refers to the smothering case in his novel 'Mr. Oldmixon'; and Dr. Wm. Hunt renders his verdict as death by "fracture of the cricoid cartilage of the larynx"—a phrase which he expands into a description of how *Othello* "grasps her neck with his powerful hands, his thumbs being over the larynx, and with two strong squeezes and a 'So, so,' garrotes her." We submit that this is the most brutal intrusion of the realistic spirit into poetic art yet known; to read this note is to give to an ideal tragic scene a bias of physical horror, from which the imagination recovers with difficulty, and to destroy at a crisis of its culmination the sense of that moral control of events in which tragedy finds its only æsthetic justification. It is to reduce "Othello" to the level of "Titus Andronicus." With this prime example of the utility of science in the criticism of works of the imagination, one may well leave this branch of the subject.

The play has not been especially fruitful in the department of proper literary criticism. It offers few problems. Discussion has centred most distinctly about *Iago*, and the exploded opinion that his malice was motiveless has given rise to a considerable part of the character-criticism of the drama. To us his repulsiveness springs rather from his indifference, his cold-bloodedness, than from the mere sight of his villany in action. The power of the play lies less in the horror than in the "pity of it," the mere misery of *Desdemona*, the ignoble duping of *Othello*. It is naturally a favorite with those who interpret Shakspere almost exclusively from the ethical standpoint, and the commandments they have found written in it are more than ten; from the doctrine concerning the family tie which is extracted from the fact that the trouble comes originally from *Desdemona's* deception of her father, down to the doctrine of courtesy which is found in the notion that, if *Othello* had had the good manners to pick up the handkerchief when *Desdemona* dropped it, all the results might have been avoided, a marvellous array of "morality" is exhibited. But this intrusion of the logic of morals is hardly less to be reproved than that of the logic of facts. It ought to be always remembered that the primary endowment of Shakspere was the artistic temperament: he was a poet first, and everything else afterwards. To say this is the same thing with saying—though we must state it baldly—that the ethical principle in him was a necessity of the imagination, not of the understanding; was vision rather than inference; was a part and not the whole. One can no more imagine life truly without ethics than he can imagine mass without cohesion; a creative genius, consequently, a man of imagination all compact, does not necessarily start from ethics in moulding his works, but it is more likely that the moral principle which his works must contain as a part of their reality will be secondary and derivative. Shakspere is ethical because he imagined life truly; he did not imagine life truly because he had thought out, in Lord Bacon's manner, the general principles of morals. Of course what is here said applies only to the ethical motives and laws which are thought to pervade whole plays, not to the apothegms or detached reflections which occur in them. The present writer would contend that an ethical view was never a formative principle in "Othello" or any other of the plays, and that the attempt to ascribe such conscious ends to Shakspere's art is made in ignorance of the fundamental principles of æsthetic criticism. "Othello" has, it is true, the Æschylean swing of fate; but it derives it from life, not from thought. Hence Mr. Snyder's laborious discussions of this play, and all like them, must be regarded as moral disquisitions on topics suggested or illustrated by Shakspere, but by no means as Shakspere's view of the world and fate. In "Othello" this sort of criticism seems especially forced. Is it because the intelligence (*Iago*) is enlisted in the service of evil?

But this notice must be ended. The next variorum issue, "if there ever be one" (which heaven grant!), will probably be "The Merchant of Venice."

Memoirs of the Life of Colonel Hutchinson, Governor of Nottingham, by his widow Lucy; edited from the original manuscript by the Rev. Julius Hutchinson. To which are added the letters of Colonel Hutchinson and other papers. Revised, with additional notes, by C. H. Firth, M.A. With ten etched portraits of eminent personages. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. 1885.

The memoirs of Col. Hutchinson rank among the best-known and most instructive of the class of original historical documents to which they belong—writings private in their nature, throwing a side-light upon events, rather than presenting them in a direct and authoritative form, as is the case with public documents. This book does not give us an account of the Civil War: Marston Moor and Naseby, the Self-denying Ordinance and the New Model, Pride's Purge and the Expulsion of the Rump, are barely alluded to; but we have a complete narrative of the military operations, and the civil dissensions as well, of one corner of England. This is a view that the great historians omit. In their works we learn the conduct of the large affairs, but we can never get from them the perfect picture of the times that may be obtained from a book like this.

As time goes on and Col. Hutchinson becomes a more prominent and influential man, we find more frequent mention of the great events of his day. The Second Civil War, the Scotch War, and especially the events after the death of Oliver Cromwell, receive relatively more attention than those of the first Civil War, when the hero of the book was simply a country gentleman of Nottinghamshire, holding a post important, it is true, but quite secondary and relatively inconspicuous. Only relatively, however. The holding of Nottingham steadily for the Parliament, through all the dark days of 1643, was a service of the highest value. The whole north was in the hands of the royalists, whose stronghold at Newark gave them safe and continuous communication with the King at Oxford and in the west. But Nottingham, only a few miles from Newark, served in its turn as an advanced post on the Parliamentarian side—standing towards Cromwell's Eastern Counties' Association somewhat as Newark did to the royalists of the north under the Earl of Newcastle.

The side-lights of a book like this are, as we have said, of the highest value; and we are assisted by it to an understanding of that breach between Parliament and the army which is one of the most critical facts of the Civil War. We are familiar, in the history of our own civil war, with this source of dissension; but the relations between the two authorities were quite the opposite in the two cases. If our Congress interfered unduly in military operations, it was because it thought the army leaders deficient in zeal and ear-

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nestness; the efforts of civilians were in the direction of inspiring greater intensity of action, and infusing a keener sympathy with the anti-slavery policy. In the English Civil War, on the other hand, it was the army that was in earnest and the Parliament that was ready to compromise. So that we find, besides the natural and unavoidable jealousy of the two powers, an antagonism in temper and policy which complicates the questions at issue, and makes it very difficult to determine in all cases where the right lay. The intrigues of the politicians against the single-hearted soldier are narrated at a length which, if somewhat wearisome by reason of its petty details, is nevertheless very instructive. The highest interest in the book is found in the later years, when the hostility was not the mere jealousy of power, but was upon fundamental questions of policy.

In these great questions of policy Col. Hutchinson occupied an attitude which classes him with Sir Harry Vane the younger—who, however, is hardly mentioned in the book. He was one of the judges of the King, and appears to have joined heartily in the policy of putting the King to death; but he was wholly opposed to the "usurpation" of Cromwell, and retired into private life, from which, however, he emerged after the resignation of Richard Cromwell, and had then some hope that the restoration of Charles II. would give England a good and free government. It seems clear that he changed his mind as to the execution of the King, and regarded it as a mistake—having led the way, not to a free government, but to a new despotism as unbearable as the old. At the same time, he never changed his opinions as to the questions at issue, and did not receive the new King with servile submission, but as, under the circumstances, the best hope of free institutions.

This is the conclusion that we draw, from the actions and language of Col. Hutchinson, as to his genuine sentiments in relation to the Civil War, the Protectorate, and the Restoration. After the Restoration he was placed in an equivocal and embarrassing position through a petition written by his wife, without his knowledge, and signed with his name. By this letter, which the editor characterizes correctly as an "humble and dishonoring petition for life," and by the assistance of members of her family—her brother, Sir Allen Apsley, had been an active leader on the Royalist side, and had now great influence at court—Col. Hutchinson was preserved from the punishment visited upon the other regicides. He felt keenly the dishonor of his situation; and, although he acquiesced in the result, so far as even to address, shortly after, another petition, to the House of Lords, dignified and manly in tone, but expressing a degree of repentance which he certainly did not feel, yet he brooded over it in his mind, and did not conceal his satisfaction at being arrested, two or three years after, and thrown into the prison in which he died.

The intercession of Sir Allen Apsley for his brother-in-law illustrates one fact that we note in this history: there is no indication in any part of the book, so far as we can recollect, of the bitter hatred which civil war has the reputation of creating between near friends and kinsmen. Col. Hutchinson's relatives, the Birons, and his wife's relatives, the Apsleys, were ardent Cavaliers; but their intercourse with him, even when the contest was at its height, is represented as always friendly, while it was their influence that obtained his pardon at the Restoration. His enemies, and very bitter ones they were, were in his own party—the members of what we may call the Parliament faction, as opposed to the army leaders.

The edition before us is sumptuous and beautiful. The ten portraits, etched with spirit, are of great value as historical portraits, most of them being of eminent characters. They are, besides Col. Hutchinson and his wife, the following: James I., Charles II., Cromwell, Ireton, Sir John Hotham, Lord Chaworth, and two kinsmen of the hero—Lord Biron and Sir Allen Apsley. Only five hundred copies have been printed, two hundred of which have been reserved for sale in this country, with an American imprint. We find an incorrect reference in a footnote on page 270 of vol. ii: it is given to page 378, when it should be 213.

The Story of the Jews. By James K. Hosmer. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

CONFORMABLY to the plan laid down in the prospectus of this series, the present work is distinctly a book for young people. Its style is pure and graphic, and it can be read from cover to cover with unabated interest. Everything, even historical proportion, is sacrificed to the desire to bring out salient features of the Jews even more than of their history. Jewish history before the contact with Assyria is dismissed in one chapter, while two are devoted to the Assyrian period. The Maccabean age is strikingly depicted, though no attempt is made to separate the legends which have grown up about the actual history contained in the Apocryphal Books of Maccabees. When our author comes to the Middle Ages, he is full of sympathy with the Jews for the persecutions they had to bear in those dark days, though he thinks that Jewish pride and exclusiveness are somewhat to blame for such constant enmity. Concerning the Jews of modern times this work is much fuller than any book on the subject. Spinoza, Mendelssohn, the Rothschilds, Montefiore, Lasker, Crémieux, D'Israeli, and Heine, all have a place.

Prof. Hosmer shows throughout evidences of careful preparation, and yet there are constantly distinct traces of the dilettante's work. He is wrong in taking *Rabshakeh*, an officer's title, as the name of a man; again, no god by the name of Nisroch has been found in the Assyrian Pantheon, and it would have been much better to assume with Halévy that Nisroch is a mistake for Nesoch, the Assyrian god Nusku. Prof. Hosmer speaks of Cyrus as the "Mede," which he certainly was not, and repeats the traditional story of the Septuagint translation without any hint of his disbelief in it. There is, moreover, a marked lack of familiarity with Jewish customs. Each male was required to visit Jerusalem thrice, not twice a year. The Day of Atonement generally falls at the beginning, never at the end of October. Similar blunders are to be found in the account of the Passover service and the description of the interior of a synagogue. But few historians will agree with the dictum concerning Josephus, that "there is no reason to doubt his real accuracy." The philosophical system of Maimonides—a reconciliation of Judaism and Aristotelianism—our author does not seem to have appreciated. A whole chapter, entitled "Casting out a Prophet," is devoted to an indignation meeting over the excommunication of Spinoza by the synagogue of Amsterdam, though, whatever be his claims to consideration as a philosopher, Spinoza certainly had none which could weigh with the elders of the synagogue or of any other church. And, finally, there are some careless slips, such as the citing of Lucien Wolf's Biography of Sir Moses Montefiore as "Simon Wolfe's."

Vice in the Horse; and Other Papers on Horses and Riding. By G. S. Anderson. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1886.

THIS little volume contains nine short essays on matters connected with horsemanship. They show the author to be a very competent horseman, though by no means a fancier of the school of clumsy "practical" horsemanship which for a century or more has been the vogue among the English. Other distinguished American amateurs have also of late declared in favor of Continental horsemanship, and have condemned the British modes of using the saddle-horse. The Southern people of the United States have never adopted the modern English manner of riding, though the Kentucky and Virginia horsemen cannot be said to follow any of the Continental schools. Their horsemanship, with its careful training in paces, more closely resembles that of the French than the fashions which now prevail in England. It appears that the modes of training and using horses on the Continent were, during the seventeenth and perhaps in the eighteenth century, common in England. That delightful braggart, Lord Herbert of Cherbury, describing in his memoirs the movements of the horse which his successors have relegated to the circus, says: "The most useful aer, as the Frenchmen term it, is territerr; the courbettes, cabrioes, or un pas et un sault, being fitter for horses of parade and triumph than for soldiers, yet I cannot deny but a demivolte with courbettes, so that they be not too high, may be useful in a fight or mêlée"—all of which he learned in western England about the beginning of the seventeenth century. The disfavor into which the old and somewhat fanciful horsemanship fell was probably due in part to its inutility in hunting, but partly also to its essential impracticability. In the same way the graceful but useless *salutes* preceding a bout of fencing, as well as many departments of the fencer's art, were abandoned in Britain as soon as French influence began to decline. Now that men of leisure in America desire to amuse themselves with horses, it is perhaps worth while to bring back the banished capers of the olden-time horsemanship. Persons who desire this diversion of training horses in nice details of action will find Mr. Anderson's hints very useful, while those who contemn such practices will find his suggestions on horse-shoeing valuable.

The Scientific Angler: Being a general and instructive work on Artistic Angling. By the late David Foster. 3d edition. London: Bemrose & Sons.

THIS is a new edition of an excellent angling book previously noticed in these columns, with the addition of delicately colored engravings of over sixty land and aquatic, natural and artificial flies, the natural and artificial being placed side by side. The imitations in some cases are wonderfully exact, in others scarcely to be recognized. The American trout is not, on the whole, as highly educated as his British cousin, and the very delicate and fine differences in the construction of flies is not so essential to success here as in England, although a good many of our Eastern waters are now breeding fish that laugh to scorn the attempts of the ordinary angler. That there is, however, a growing interest in the niceties of the art is shown by the fact that Mr. Foster's book has been reprinted here. It is stated erroneously in the preface that this and the 'Compleat Angler' are "the only English books on angling that our transatlantic cousins have deemed worthy of reprinting." The book is one every angler ought to have, and the colored plates of flies make this the most desirable edition yet published. There is a good deal of useful information about rods, reels, lines, etc., but the fact is, that we are as much ahead of the English in these utensils as they are of us in the fly-tying branch of the art of angling.

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Glimpses of Three Coasts. By Helen Jackson (H. H.). Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1886.

THE papers that fill this volume are rather the fruit of travel than the description of it. The first coast visited, the Californian, is looked at in the main as the scene of the early Spanish missions, which interested the author ethically through her sympathy with the work of civilizing the Indians. The other coasts, Scottish, Norwegian, and Danish, are more picturesquely treated; but here, too, it is the novelist who writes, and scenes from the common life are of more consequence to her than landscape. Often the narrative becomes only a dialect-sketch. The village and play of Oberammergau, which are the last subjects, could hardly be "glimpsed" from any but a Bohemian seacoast. The volume has no unity, and most, if not all, of its contents have appeared in magazines or papers.

George Eliot and Her Heroines: A Study. By Abba Goold Woolson. Harper & Brothers. 1886.

THE very poor portrait of George Eliot prefixed to this volume—a mechanical engraving of a feeble photograph—is a fitting frontispiece for it. That this "study" has succeeded in producing a certain sort of likeness of George Eliot is not to be denied; but it is feeble in conception and mechanical in execution. Such power of representation as it possesses is impaired by frequent uncalled for criticism, of a kind that might even be pronounced impertinent, of George Eliot's works, though they are ranked as highly as they deserve. There is, too, a large amount of extraneous matter. There are few leading themes in the volume and no striking passages. It is, therefore, a book impossible either to analyze or to quote from. A few unfortunate misconceptions might be pointed out were it in any wise worth discussion.

Bilder aus dem englischen Leben. Von Leopold Katscher. Zweite Auflage. Leipzig. 1885. 342 pp.

Aus England. Von L. Katscher. Leipzig. 1885. 109 pp.

Nebelland und Themsestrand. Von L. Katscher. Stuttgart: G. I. Göschen. 1886. 473 pp.

GERMANY must be the paradise of the "literary journalist"—using the phrase in the sense in which it is understood by those who so describe themselves. In Germany, as elsewhere, scholars and specialists occasionally write articles, and the littérateur is not absolutely unknown; but the staple of German magazines and feuilletons consists of "reports" and political correspondence writ large, being as devoid of the literary flavor as are the columns of a newspaper. Mr. Katscher is one of the best, as well as one of the most prolific, of these journalists, and has turned his reporting faculty to the best account in connection with what seems to have been a long residence in London. But he has neither the grace of style necessary to make commonplace agreeable, nor the power of intuitive perception which draws from it an unobvious meaning. In these volumes we find discussed everything of current newspaper interest, from sewers and gas to the Salvation Army and the Shakers, but nothing is treated in any but the every-day, superficial aspect; so that, however useful as an encyclopædia of useful information, Mr. Katscher's collections cannot be said to have any claim to form an addition to literature. His sketches are always sensible, but never shrewd. He is too exclusively a journalist to take a particular interest in anything, and altogether too reasonable and careful to display the prejudice and ignorance which, faults as they are, give the foreign studies of his French contemporaries a certain interest, if not value. What is more surprising is that he shows none of that "thoroughness"—that special familiarity with some field of research or phase of life—which one expects to find in German books, and which characterized the English studies of Mr. Katscher's predecessors, Althaus, Rodenberg, Hillebrand, and Holtzendorff.

Die Buddha-Legende und das Leben Jesu nach den Evangelien: Von Rudolf Seydel, Professor an der Universität Leipzig. Leipzig: Otto Schulze.

THIS little book is a sequel to the author's previous work on the same subject ('Das Evangelium von Jesu in seinen Verhältnissen zu Buddha-Sage und Buddha-Lehre'). It includes in it arguments drawn from the most recent researches into the Buddha legend. The conclusion to which the author now comes is, that it is quite possible that the structure of the Gospels was framed after a Buddhist model. He says that the Evangelists need have known nothing of the Buddhist legend, as it was *Buddhist:* but that a poetical Gospel, or the framework of a Gospel, might have been put together at Ephesus or Antioch or Alexandria by a Christian poet brought into contact with a Buddhist mendicant attached perhaps to some embassy to the West—and that on the lines of this poetical outline, confessedly built on the Legend of Buddha, the Evangelists, with no knowledge of Buddha himself, might have constructed or shaped the Gospels of Christ. Professor Seydel gives an example of what he means by observing that the typical group of the Virgin and Child, as painted by Raphael or Holbein, must undoubtedly have been suggested by the Isis-Horus figures, although without any distinct recognition in the minds of the Christian painters. In other words, his theory is that there is always a surviving ideal of the fittest, whether in poetry or art, which commends itself to the mind of the man tuned to receive it, though he himself in accepting the ideal is utterly ignorant of the source or concrete origin of the idea itself.

Professor Seydel therefore takes for granted that the Buddha-life was an ideal of human perfection, not necessarily the most perfect ideal, but such an one as, in the development of man's capabilities, would commend itself to the great human conscience. This ideal, transplanted to another soil, and brought into contact with a higher knowledge and a more complete religious system, and at the same time with a more perfect ideal of human greatness, viz., the character of Christ, produced the first thought of framing a life of Jesus; or, in other words, suggested the idea of the Gospel narratives.

It is undoubtedly a fact, notwithstanding all contradiction, that the Buddha legend was put together before the Christian era; and when we follow Professor Seydel in his comparisons of the leading features of this legend with the particulars found in the Gospels, we cannot but allow that there is a great similarity of *framework.* But as this does not support the wild arguments of those who would convert the Christian system into a perverted form of Buddhism, neither does it seek any reconciliation with those who discard the Buddhist element in the development of the religious idea in man, which is embodied in history. We think that Professor Seydel has put the whole matter, as it concerns the parallels between the Buddhist legend and the Gospel narrative, in very fitting words, as concise as any canon can be, when he says, on p. 16 of his work, "The probability of the independent origin diminishes in proportion to the increasing specialty of the resemblances and the increasing frequency of such specialties."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, T. The Second Punic War; Being Chapters of the History of Rome, edited by W. T. Arnold. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Behrends, Dr. A. J. F. Socialism and Christianity. Baker & Taylor. $1.50.
Blake, J. V. Manual Training in Education. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Bowker, R. R. Copyright: Its Law and its Literature. With a Bibliography of Literary Property, by Thorvald Solberg. Office of *Publishers' Weekly.*
Brooks, H. M. New England Sunday. [The Olden Time Series. Vol. 3.] Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Buchheim, C. A. Modern German Reader. Part II. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Burritt, J. L. How to Teach Penmanship in Public Schools. 2d ed. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 60 cents.
Coit, J. M. The Elements of Chemical Arithmetic, with a Short System of Elementary Qualitative Analysis. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
Comfort, G. F. Modern Languages in Education. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 25 cents.
Constance of Acadia: A Novel. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Cooke, A. H. Xenophon; Selections from the Cyropædia. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Cremona, L. Elements of Projective Geometry. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Dix, Rev. M. The Gospel and Philosophy. Six Lectures, Delivered in Trinity Chapel, New York. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.
Ely, Prof. R. T. French and German Socialism in Modern Times. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Foreordained: A Story of Heredity. Fowler & Wells. 50 cents.
Freeman, C. E., and Sloman, A. P. Terenti Andria. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Gardener, Helen H. Men, Women, and Gods. With an Introduction by Robert G. Ingersoll. 4th ed. The Truth Seeker Co.
Gibbs, D. C. If Love be Love: A Forest Idyl. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Graham, Prof. W. The Social Problem in its Economical, Moral, and Political Aspects. Scribner & Welford.
Grant, U. S. Personal Memoirs. Vol. II. C. L. Webster & Co.
Grueber, E. The Roman Law of Damage to Property. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Hoey, Mrs. Cashel. A Stern Chase: A Story in Three Parts. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Hornbrook, Emma E. Marvellous in Our Eyes: A Story of Providence. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Jeans, J. S. England's Supremacy; Its Sources, Economics, and Dangers. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Jebb, R. C. Sophocles: The Plays and Fragments. Part II. The Œdipus Coloneus. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Kaegi, Prof. A. The Rigveda: The Oldest Literature of the Indians. Boston: Ginn & Co.
King, T. Hashish: A Novel. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Krausse, A. S. Starving London: The Story of a Three Weeks' Sojourn among the Destitute. Scribner & Welford.
Lathrop, G. P. Representative Poems of Living Poets, American and English. Selected by the Poets Themselves. Cassell & Co. $5.
Lee-Warner, H. Hints and Helps for Latin Elegiacs. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Library Catalogue and Index. Containing Spaces for 1,500 Titles. Chicago: Shepard & Johnston.
Lock, J. B. Trigonometry for Beginners. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Mackie, E. C. Parallel Passages for Translation into Greek and English. Macmillan. $1.10.
Marshall, J. Xenophon: Anabasis, Book I. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Martineau, J. Types of Ethical Theory. 2 vols. 2d ed. Revised. Macmillan & Co. $4.50.
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Milnes, A. Johnson: Lives of Dryden and Pope. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Minchin, G. M. A Treatise on Statics, with Applications to Physics. Vol II. 3d ed. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Neff, Elizabeth Clifford. A Chronicle, together with a Little Romance Regarding Rudolf and Jacob Naf, of Frankford, Pa., and their Descendants, including an Account of the Neffs in Switzerland and America. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $4.
Nekrasov, W. A. Red-Nosed Frost. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Nixon, J. E. Prose Extracts for Translation into English and Latin. Macmillan. $1.50.
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Profits in Poultry. O. Judd Co. $1.
Qualtrough, Lieut. E. F. The Boat Sailer's Manual. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Quick, R. H. Essays on Educational Reformers. New ed. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
Rees, J. R. The Pleasures of a Book-Worm. George J. Coombes.
Richards, G., and Walpole, A. S. Livy's Siege of Syracuse. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Royce, J. California. American Commonwealths Series. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Saintsbury, G. Sainte-Beuve: Causeries du Lundi. Selected. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Sanborn, Helen J. A Winter in Central America and Mexico. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
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Scott, Sir W. Guy Mannering. [Classics for Children.] Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
Seeley, H. G. The Fresh-Water Fishes of Europe. 214 illustrations. Cassell & Co. $5.
Sherman, Gen. W. T. Memoirs. 2d ed. Revised and Corrected. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Shuckburgh, E. S. Cicero: De Senectute. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Smith, C. Elementary Algebra. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
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Vicary, J. F. A Stork's Nest, or Pleasant Reading from the North. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Vincent, J. H. The Chautauqua Movement. Boston: Chautauqua Press.
Walloth, W. The King's Treasure-House: A Romance of Ancient Egypt. W. S. Gottsberger.
Warden, Florence. A Prince of Darkness. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Whiting, C. G. J. The Saunterer. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.25.
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